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ABSTRACT

This publication discusses the use of intensive teaching methods for language instruction, also known as suggestopedia ("suggestopaedy"). The theory of suggestopedia, various methods developed from the theory, and their applications are described. A description of Lozanov's suggestopedic method precedes a discussion about the various directions intensive teaching based on suggestopedia has taken in different countries. A more detailed discussion of recent developments in intensive teaching in the Soviet Union follows and includes: the psychological theory of activity, the speech activity theory, the theory of the psychology of the collective, and the principles of pedagogical communication. Finally, the psychological and methodological principles and the instructional process of the activation method are considered. A seven-page bibliography is supplied. The appendixes provide guidance in setting up an intensive course in Russian, as well as a sample unit: "Let's Get Acquainted!"--Language Centre Materials No. 39. (MSE)

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KORKEAKOULUJEN KIELIKESKUKSEN JULKAISUJA
Reports from the Language Centre for Finnish Universities

No. 33

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INTENSIVE METHODS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

SIRKKU T. AHILAI AKKANAINEN

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INTENSIVE METHODS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

Sirkka Laihiala-Kankainen

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ABSTRACT

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The purpose of the study is to introduce the theories of intensive teaching and their application to foreign language instruction. The intensive methods of language teaching refer to methods influenced by suggestopaedy; the term suggestopaedy is used by Lozanov and his school, but the term intensive teaching is more widespread in the USSR.

From the beginning of the 1970s Soviet specialists, who had acquainted themselves with the theory and practice of intensive teaching in Bulgaria, began applying intensive methods, and at the same time participated in the further scientific and methodological elaboration of the principles of intensive teaching. They shared many of Lozanov's basic ideas, widely basing their theories on the practical experience of his research team and the technology it had developed. But at the same time they wanted to find their own solutions to a number of problems connected with intensive teaching in their own country. As a result, intensive teaching in the USSR underwent a series of modifications and also became the subject of psychological and pedagogical elaboration within the framework of the Soviet scientific tradition.

An intensive course in Russian for students of the Arts and social sciences was developed at the Language Centre for Finnish Universities in 1981-85 in cooperation with the Pushkin Institute in Moscow. This cooperation also made it possible to get more thoroughly acquainted with the theory of intensive teaching and its applications in the Soviet Union, particularly in the field of adult education.

The present report begins with a general introduction of G. Lozanov's suggestopaedic method and a description of the various directions intensive teaching based in this theory took in different countries. This is followed by a more detailed discussion of recent developments in intensive teaching in the Soviet Union: the psychological theory of activity (L. S. Vygotsky and his school), the speech activity theory (A. A. Leontiev), the theory of the psychology of the collective (A. V. Petrovsky), and the principles of pedagogical communication. Finally, the "activation method" developed under G. A. Kitajgorodskaya's direction is considered with regard to its psychological and methodological principles as well as the organization of the instructional process and the different phases of the teaching process.
intensive methods. suggestopaedy. language teaching. teaching methods

FOREWORD

The purpose of this report is to present the theory of intensive teaching developed in the Soviet Union and its applications to foreign language teaching. The writing of the report was made possible by the co-operation agreement between the Finnish Ministry of Education and the Pushkin Institute of Russian, which gave me the opportunity of acquainting myself with the theory of intensive teaching and of following the practical application of intensive methods in teaching situations at the University of Moscow, the Pushkin Institute of Russian, and the Academy of Social Sciences.

For help with completing the work, I am especially grateful to my colleague of many years' standing, Docent Raisa Surmonina, of the Pushkin Institute, whose experience and expertise have been of the first magnitude in the preparation of an intensive course in Russian and its try-out in the field and who was chiefly responsible for making it possible to obtain first-hand experience of intensive teaching in the Soviet Union.

My conception of the theoretical principles of intensive teaching probably owes most to Professor A. A. Leontiev, Doctor of Philological and Psychological Sciences, Director of the Department of Methodology and Psychology at the Pushkin Institute and at present one of the best-known psycholinguists and developers of the theory of intensive teaching in the Soviet Union. The practical aspects of intensive teaching were demonstrated most impressively by Docent G. A. Kitai-gorodskaya, known as a "brilliant pedagogue", and who is the developer of the "activation method"; she is in charge of further education for teachers at the University of Moscow.

I would also like to thank R. T. Connal (M.A.) for translating a first draft of the report, and I am especially grateful to Eva and Anthony May for preparing the final English version.

Jyväskylä, 16. 12. 1987

Sirkka Laihiala-Kankainen

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I NEW CHALLENGES IN LEARNING

"In all probability, none of us at the moment learns at the level, intensity, and pace demanded by the complexity of modern life." (Botkin et al. 1981, 23)

The need to increase the effectiveness of learning and to develop teaching methods is perhaps greater now than ever before. The tapping of potential human resources and the development of unused abilities are particularly important in a modern technological society. According to Lozanov (1981, 7), this development should also be accelerated and channeled harmoniously in such a way that human equilibrium could be achieved in our technical civilisation.

Efforts to increase the efficiency of the teaching-learning process have not, however, contributed greatly to an improvement in learning results. This is due, at least in part, to the fact that attention is fixed mainly on external factors in teaching - particularly on those methods by which the learner's overt behaviour can be controlled - rather than on consideration of covert factors in learning and of the means by which the learner's mental work could be guided. Traditional teaching methods and practice have not taken sufficient notice of the learner's overall personality and its resources.

Where, then, should new approaches to the development of teaching methods be sought? Different intensive methods endeavour to meet the demands and challenges that confront contemporary teaching. The development of intensive teaching along specific methodological lines has been influenced, above all, by the suggestopaedic theory presented in the mid 1960s by G. Lozanov and from which many intensive teaching methods have evolved.

Georgi Lozanov, the Bulgarian physician and psychiatrist, is by no means the first scientist (though he may be the best known in recent decades) to look for solutions to learning phenomena in psychophysiology and psychotherapy. According to Racle (1984), the work of the French researchers Charot and Bernheim, as well as that of the Russian Bekhterev, has been of great importance as far as Lozanov's work is concerned. Nor should one forget the widespread experimentation and research which has been carried out, particularly since the 1950s, into the various applications of hypnosis and suggestion to learning and other activities. Lozanov's indisputable merit is generally recognised, however, in his creation of a basis for intensive teaching methods and their application to teaching practice. Suggestopaedy has had a considerable effect particularly on the development of intensive forms of language teaching.

The use of the term *intensive teaching* (*intensivnoe obučenie*) is sometimes criticised on grounds of ambiguity (see Sherzhan 1981). It is customary to refer to all teaching methods which are concentrated into a short-term framework as intensive teaching, regardless of the special features of the teaching content. In modern Russian the term normally used for this kind of teaching is *accelerated teaching* (*uskorennoe obučenie*), whereas intensive teaching is used in a more specific sense to denote teaching methods inspired by suggestopaedy, in which the intensiveness lies in the quality of the teaching-learning process, rather than in the organisational aspects of teaching.

Intensive teaching can be defined as a *methodological system* or approach, in which an attempt is made to *qualitatively develop* the teaching by using the research results of several academic disciplines. Its central aim is to raise *internal learning intensity* by activating those potential resources (reserves) in the personality of the learner which generally go unheeded and unused in normal teaching. The objective of intensive teaching is, thus, for the student to learn as much as possible in the shortest possible time.

Suggestopaedy is considered as one form of intensive teaching, whose central ideas are frequently utilised, in one way or another, in nearly all intensive methods. Most supporters of and researchers into this approach have received their training in Bulgaria as students of Lozanov in the period 1960-70. Since then, there have been various opinions regarding the development of suggestopaedy; divergences from Lozanov's theories have occurred both in research trends and in teaching practice.

The purpose of this report is to introduce the forms of intensive teaching developed in the Soviet Union which have been applied to foreign language teaching since the 1970s. To begin with, attitudes in the Soviet Union towards some theoretical assumptions of suggestopaedy were rather critical, though Lozanov was held in esteem for his insights into the exploitation of involuntary memory and the subconscious in the learning process. While Lozanov's method above all emphasises a psychotherapeutic approach, considerable attention has been paid in the Soviet Union to the psychological, sociopsychological, and pedagogical principles of language teaching and learning. The development of theories of intensive teaching has been influenced above all by the theories of general, personalistic and social psychology (L.S. Vygotsky, A.R. Luriya, B.V. Rubinstein, A.N. Leontiev, A.S. Makarenko, A.V. Petrovsky, inter alia), psychophysiological principles (I.P. Pavlov, I.M. Sechenov, inter alia), and various trends in psycholinguistics (A.A. Leontiev, E.I. Passov, I.A. Zimnyaya, inter alia).

Since the various forms of intensive teaching are, in one way or another, based on and noticeably influenced by suggestopaedy, the following chapter will first describe briefly the premises of Lozanov's theory and the principles of suggestopaedic language teaching, and then examine trends in various countries based upon it. The development of intensive teaching theory in the Soviet Union and its application to foreign language teaching will then be discussed.

II THE SIGNIFICANCE OF SUGGESTOPAEDY IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

In examining the development of intensive teaching one can speak of a pre-Lozanovian, a "Lozanovian", and a post-Lozanovian era (Racle, 1984). On the basis of such a division, this chapter will first introduce various pre-suggestopaedic methods, which aimed at increasing the effectiveness of learning by using the reserves of the individual's psyche and by looking for new means, particularly in the fields of memorisation and memory. Secondly, the system of suggestopaedic language teaching, its presuppositions and its basic principles, will be described; and, finally, trends in intensive teaching developed in various countries on the basis of suggestopaedy will be reviewed.

1. The "Pre-Lozanovian" period: attempts to increase the efficiency of learning

The teaching of foreign languages has, at various times, been based on different views of the nature and special features of learning. In general, these ideas derive from differing trends and schools in psychology and provide very different pictures of the individual as learner. Soon after the development of psychology into an independent science, it split into schools studying the psyche from various viewpoints and later these schools developed quite independently of each other. A rough classification reveals three main trends at the beginning of this century: psychoanalysis, behaviourism, and Gestalt psychology (Haapasalo 1976, 17), of which the last two have had a particularly strong influence on teaching.

The behaviourist approach, in its various forms, dominated language teaching methods up to the 1970s, but Gestalt psychology - later cognitive psychology - has also stimulated the development of language teaching (see Laihiala-Kankainen, 1986).

In the first half of this century, psycho-analysis did not have a marked influence on the development of teaching. It was only in the late 1950s that interest in psychotherapy and psychophysiology grew and learning activity began to be examined from the viewpoint of realising hidden potential and abilities in the individual. Attempts were made to develop various "super-learning" techniques, typical of which were the application of different degrees of hypnosis and suggestion, among other things. In the Soviet Union, research and experimentation of this kind has, for instance, applied hypnopaedia, rhythmopaedia, and relaxopaedia to foreign language teaching (Kapitonova & Shchukin 1979, 189-198; see also Laihiala-Kankainen 1984b), with the aim of increasing the effectiveness of learning and of utilising learner potential. These methods will now be briefly described, together with the lessons learned from their application.

Hypnopaedia - learning while asleep - aroused particular interest as a method of foreign language teaching during the 1960s. The use of hypnopaedia is based on the supposition that the learner can, when asleep, memorise tape-recorded linguistic material (generally foreign language vocabulary and structures and their native language equivalents) and, when awake, identify what he heard, understand it, and produce it orally himself.

At the moment, the long term impact of material assimilated with the aid of hypnopaedia has not been experimentally ascertained and its use in teaching is still disputed. The majority of researchers in the Soviet Union, however, hold that hypnopaedia is one possible teaching method, which can be applied in combination with other teaching methods to

optimise the attainment of results. It is considered best suited to the teaching of vocabulary and structures, but, for maximum effect, phases of hypnopaedic teaching (passive, mechanical assimilation) should be combined with conscious language study (awareness and reinforcement of material when awake).

Rhythmopaedia is based on understanding the laws governing biological rhythms in the human organism. In rhythmopaedia, instruction takes place in the transition phase between wakefulness and sleep, this state being attained with the aid of special electro-hypnotic devices. Rhythmopaedia has been observed to effectively facilitate the reproduction of material presented for learning. Teaching can be carried out in an ordinary classroom, but the use of complicated electro-hypnotic equipment naturally limits any wider application of the method.

Relaxopaedia achieves its didactic purpose through relaxation brought about with the aid of suggestion. The basis of this method, too, is the supposition that in a relaxed state the learner can memorise considerably greater amounts of information than would otherwise be possible. The application of relaxopaedia to the teaching of foreign languages has yielded good results (Geihman 1980; Shvarts 1973), and it is still being actively investigated. Trials have been carried out on phonetics, grammar, and reading comprehension, as well as vocabulary.

Application of the method to teaching is easier than with hypnopaedia or rhythmopaedia, since no special equipment is required; instruction can be provided by all teachers who have received special training in the method. This technique is also recommended for use in supplementing and reinforcing traditional teaching.

Although the purpose of the methods described above is to increase the effectiveness of teaching and to make use of the learner's potential reserves, they do not properly belong to the body of intensive methods. Common to them all is an unusual way of presenting learning materials, aimed primarily at the acquisition of words, texts, rules, etc., and at a

volume several times in excess of the norms and limits generally considered possible. Research results are encouraging, but they are confined to only one factor influencing the learning process - memory and memorisation. Thus, these methods should be considered chiefly as effective means of memorising information, which may be used in language teaching together with other pedagogical strategies.

2. The "Lozanovian" period: the suggestopaedic system

Underlying Lozanov's suggestopaedic theory is a thorough knowledge of the effects of hypnosis and suggestion. The first suggestopaedic experiments were made in the mid 1960s, when Lozanov's interest was directed expressly towards questions of teaching and training and the development of the *suggestopaedic system*. In 1966, the Sofia Institute of Suggestology and Parapsychology was founded, and the first symposium on suggestology was held in Varna in 1971. Lozanov concluded his research work proper at the end of the 1960s, since when he has been publishing literature on suggestology and suggestopaedy (for example, Lozanov 1978), as well as training teachers and researchers from various countries in accordance with the principles of suggestopaedy (Väänänen 1983).

2.1. The basic principles of suggestopaedy

For an understanding of the principles of suggestopaedy, it is necessary, first, to define some central concepts used by Lozanov. *Suggestology* is a comprehensive science covering suggestion, its various aspects, its effects, and its use (Lozanov, 1980, 15). Lozanov concentrated mainly on examination of the possibilities of suggestion to aid the release of potential abilities in the individual and the development of both mental and physical resources. The term *suggestion* derives from the Latin *suggero*, *suggesti*, *suggestum*, meaning *set out*, *produce*, *offer*, *present*, *hint*. In Lozanov (1980, 16), the concept comes closest to the meanings of *offer* and *present*.

Ordinarily, by suggestion is meant *influencing*, an external stimulus which emotionally influences the individual's thinking, will, and feelings (Lindh 1983, 8). Suggestion can be verbal or non-verbal, conscious or subconscious, positive or negative. In a broad sense, suggestion is part of all interaction between people, generally on a subconscious level.

In suggestopaedy, the most central element borrowed from psychotherapy is suggestion used for pedagogical purposes. According to Lozanov, there are suggestive influences - whether positive or negative - at work in every teaching situation to a greater or lesser extent. The teacher can consciously create a positive suggestive climate by means of a good relationship with the students (giving rewards, approval, encouragement, incentives, etc.), but, on the other hand, he might be quite unwittingly using negative suggestion (criticism, disapproval, disparagement; negative awards, punishment, etc.), producing a negative experience of learning, thereby negatively influencing attitudes towards study in general. Continuous exposure to negative suggestion can create serious obstacles not only to learning but also to the development of the individual's self esteem and to the formation of a harmonious personality (Lindh 1983, 4).

According to Lozanov, negative suggestion has also contributed to the establishment of the conception of the limited scope of human memory and the "painfulness" of creative work. This kind of suggestive approach slows down the development of the individual's genetically determined mental abilities. Thus, one of the most important objectives of suggestology is to set students free from this suggestive norm, in other words, to de-suggest the norm (Lozanov 1980, 33).

According to psychotherapeutic research, suggestion can release the unused resources in the individual's consciousness. The aim of suggestopaedy, besides "freeing" and stimulating the memory, is to release the reserves of the individual's whole personality. By *potential abilities* Lozanov means those abilities hidden within the individual which operate

mainly in the paraconscious¹ and exceed normal capacities many times (Lozanov, 1980, 17). Lozanov cites the following as examples of the wide range of potential abilities emerging with the aid of suggestion:

- hypermnesia, super-memory, which is several times in excess of the capacity of ordinary memory
- hyperactivity, hyper-creativity, e.g. the expression of artistic ability
- suggestive control and self-control (sympathetic nervous system activity, nutritional state, etc.).

According to Lozanov (1980, 19), unused capacities can only be freed in conditions when suggestion is used skilfully and conscious and subconscious activities are orchestrated and harmonised. Although potential abilities are an integral part of consciousness, their principal "warehouse" is the paraconscious.

Suggestive influence can be achieved by various means. Simple suggestive stimuli can be incorporated into language teaching, e.g. in intonation, rhythm, expressions and gestures, vocal modulation, etc. Suggestive influence often also appears strongly in various means of artistic expression (e.g. music, rhythm, shapes, and colours evoke feelings, images, and various reactions in the individual's subconscious). The concepts of *authority* and *infantilisation*, borrowed from psychotherapy, are more complicated means of using suggestion. In suggestopaedy, emphasis is placed on the teacher's position of authority, in recognition of the fact, well known also in social psychology, that information coming from a respected person is more quickly and easily received and accepted. In this context, infantilisation means a kind of childlike trust or confidential relationship between the object of suggestion and its source. Sometimes this principle

¹ By the paraconscious is meant the operation of the mind outside the field of consciousness. It often has approximately the same meaning as subconsciousness, subliminality. Paraconsciousness includes peripheral perceptions, emotional tone, etc.

is understood as a return to childlike behaviour, which, however, is out of the question in the teaching of adults. Infantilisation should be understood, rather, as a kind of detachment from emotional and behavioural stereotypes and an internal experience of freedom (Leontiev, 1981a, 112).

In the opinion of Lozanov, traditional methods in education and teaching conflict with the physiological and psychological ways in which personalities act. The following is a summary of those psychophysiological laws which, according to Lozanov (1980, 34-41), do not receive sufficient attention in ordinary teaching:

1) Participation of the whole brain

The brain never works purely cortically or subcortically; nor does it operate with the left or right cerebral hemisphere alone. The brain forms a functional entity, and in teaching it is necessary, therefore, to activate simultaneously the emotional and motivational functions as well as creative thought and abstract logical abilities.

Traditionally, however, teaching is directed only at the learner's cortex and the left cerebral hemisphere - in other words, the learner is treated as a machine, operating without feeling or motivation. Even when there is an attempt to treat the learner as a psychophysiological entity, the teaching process itself is not necessarily carried out in an integrated manner - directed at all parts of the brain simultaneously - but in different phases (emotional, visual, abstract-logical, etc.).

2) Simultaneity of analytical and synthesising processes

Normally, analytical and synthesising operations occur simultaneously; one cannot distinguish levels of pure analysis and synthesis. The simultaneity and holism of these physiological processes also manifest themselves psychologically and operate as a basis for the process of conscious awareness, which proceeds from the general to the particular (which is, in any case, also an element of the general) and back to the general (as structural units of rationalised elements).

In the practice of educational work, these laws are often applied, however, in such a way that elements are learned separately, detached from any meaningful totality, and their use is made automatic in tiring exercises before they are combined into a whole. On the other hand, one can also study the whole without paying attention to the parts and to their inter-relationships.

3) Simultaneity and inseparability of conscious and para-conscious processes

In every communicative process there is interaction between individuals occurring simultaneously on both conscious and subconscious levels. Teaching ordinarily relies on only one or other of these levels. Often, all attention in the learning process is concentrated on activities at the conscious level. Learners are compelled to assimilate each item accurately, consciously, and intellectually, regardless of the fact that, to some degree, it could also be acquired spontaneously and intuitively in an integrated, organised learning process. The other extreme involves emphasis only on the learner's paraconscious and intuitive abilities, neglecting the necessary conscious elaboration and creative evaluation of the material.

From these premises Lozanov has created his own theory of learning, which he has applied, for example, to the teaching of foreign languages. This is not primarily a teaching method, but a new pedagogic system, based on wide-ranging research (Stevick 1984), and called suggestopaedy. Briefly, the central principles of suggestopaedy are as follows (Lozanov 1980, 44-56, also Ruotsalainen and Pohjala 1978, 9-11):

1) The principle of pleasure and relaxation

A free and pleasant teaching atmosphere makes possible the free and balanced operation of the mind as well as concentration, without obstacles of anxiety; it also provides the preconditions for creative activity that facilitates the function of memory.

2) Integrated activation of the brain, on both conscious and subconscious levels

The unity of conscious and subconscious factors requires that attention be paid to the integrated, simultaneous interaction between the cerebral cortex and the interior centres of the brain and also the use of both cerebral hemispheres in the learning process. Different factors in communication, which should not be in conflict with each other (e.g. verbal and non-verbal communication) should also be taken into account in teaching.

3) The principle of suggestive interaction

In the teaching-learning process, inter-relationships evolve that are similar to those found in group therapy.

The aim is to create factors that remove negative suggestion and increase positive suggestion in order to reinforce learning. Factors inhibiting learning are, for example, the learner's conception of his own lack of ability or of the excessive difficulty of the subject.

The above-mentioned principles of suggestopaedy form a fixed entity, which should be applied complete in teaching. Lozanov emphasises that the learning activity occurs on the plane of the unused potential of the personality and results are negligible if only one or a selection of these suggestopaedic principles are applied rather than all of them simultaneously.

2.2. Suggestopaedic language teaching

Suggestopaedic principles can be applied to teaching practice using various psychological, didactic, and artistic methods or operational models (see Lozanov 1980, 45-52; Ruotsalainen & Pohjala 1978, 10-11). The purpose of using *psychological methods* is to co-ordinate peripheral sensory perceptions, emotional stimuli directed at motivation and drives, and, in general, the activation of the entire personality. During teacher training, command of psychological methods should be given special attention; in Lozanov's opinion, the successful use of these methods requires a similar training to that given to psychotherapists.

Didactic methods aim at larger teaching units and a generalisation of memory codes. Larger teaching units make it possible to form a general conception of the subject to be learnt, while the generalisation of memory codes makes it possible to exceed the limits of short-term memory. In teaching, particular attention should be paid to teaching content and the meaning of a subject entity. For example, in foreign language teaching the learner's attention is directed to the

whole sentence and its meaningful communicative aspects, while pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar remain more in the background and are given only brief attention. In general, the aim should be to present difficult items without drawing particular attention to them, and preferably in conjunction with material which can be easily assimilated.

"Artistic methods" (e.g. the use of music, classroom improvisation, and drama) are an important part of the suggestopaedic teaching process. Such methods can be used both to create a pleasant teaching atmosphere and to improve suggestibility, which is related to individual resources, attitudes, motivation, and expectations. Part of the material taught is assimilated directly through these artistic means: they are not educational "extras", whose object is external motivation or amusement, but an integral element of the lesson content, intended to fit in naturally in the teaching situation.

Supporters of traditional teaching have remarked that methods used in suggestopaedy are already being used in language teaching. Obviously, suggestopaedy differs from other teaching methods or approaches less as regards isolated elements than in the specific ways in which the elements of the teaching process are linked (see Stevick 1984).

Suggestopaedic language teaching is not based on a linguistic theory proper. As a consequence of greater emphasis being placed on a psychotherapeutic approach, surprisingly little attention has been paid to the linguistic viewpoint. Generally speaking, language is understood as a means of communication (Ruotsalainen & Pohjola 1978, 11; Asanti & Eklund 1983, 8), and the purpose of teaching is to develop a readiness for expression in which the semantic content of the message is regarded as primary. From the beginning, learners are involved in conversation, employing the foreign language in various linguistic situations. Interest is directed towards *what* the learner wishes to say rather than *how* he expresses it. In this sense, the suggestopaedic approach can be considered as continuing the tradition of functionalist language teaching methods, and also as having some of the same features as various manifestations of the so-called direct

methods (see Laihiala-Kankainen 1986).

Suggestopaedy has produced good results, particularly in adult language teaching. The method was originally applied expressly to the linguistic development of adult specialists in various fields. Although attempts have been made to expand the scope of its application into the field of school education, the teaching of adults has remained the principal domain of suggestopaedy because of the more flexible system characteristic of adult education.

A brief description follows of the phases of suggestopaedic teaching, based on Finnish sources (see Ruotsalainen & Pohjola 1978; Ilpola 1983; Tella 1983; Asanti & Eklund 1983). A typical introductory suggestopaedic course lasts about a month, with teaching arranged in periods of four lessons on five days in the week. On an introductory course, basic grammar is taught, together with a vocabulary of about 2000 common words. A teaching group consists of approximately 14 students selected in preliminary tests; the purpose is to create homogeneous groups (the criterion for homogeneity being the memorising capacity of the learners), as such a group is presumed more easily to generate a positive learning atmosphere able to remove any possible fears from foreign language learning. In suggestopaedic language teaching it is possible to distinguish three teaching phases: the pre-session phase, the session phase, and the post-session phase. During the first two phases, the study materials are introduced (presentation), while during the third phase these materials are practised in various situations (activation of the study materials).

The introduction of new material occurs in three stages. First, the teacher reads the new text and explains the more difficult passages (pre-session phase). In the session phase the new material is presented using *intoned reading*, of which there are several variants. The usual method is for the teacher to read the text once more while carefully selected music is being played in the background, the students following the reading in their textbooks. The teacher's speech rhythms and intonation should be in harmony with the back-

ground music. Finally comes the *concert reading*, during which the text is read through once more with music, but the students are now urged to relax and enjoy the music without textbooks.

In suggestopaedic teaching, the introduction of new material is linked to a kind of *ritualisation*. The significance and festivity of the session are emphasised in order to convey the idea that new material can be assimilated without tension and fatigue. Musical and theatrical performances are utilised because of the positive associations linked with them. During the suggestopaedic session, an attempt is made, with the aid of music and ritualisation, to bring about a *pseudopassive state*, characterised by concentrated psychic relaxation and a calm frame of mind, free from disturbing thoughts, in which state the new material is easily assimilated.

The *activation phase* is composed of various elaborations, in which the assimilation of the material is reinforced. This phase is divided into two parts, in the first of which practice mainly takes the form of repetition and imitation, while the second part is devoted to generalisation of the study material and its creative use in a wider range of contexts.

In the first session of a suggestopaedic course, students are given *roles* (foreign language names and biographies, professions, and addresses), which they will identify themselves with during the course. The use of roles has a psychological basis: students' social backgrounds and perception of their own personalities will not interfere with learning. The roles also have a linguistic function: the recurrence of difficult sounds in the foreign language in the names, addresses, and occupations make them easier to learn, as they are felt to be allied to the self and are often repeated in conversation.

Evaluation of learning is given particular attention, and is used primarily to enhance the learner's self-confidence. Correction of mistakes is handled with great tact, as evaluation should be encouraging and must not negatively

influence study motivation. In suggestopaedic teaching, homework is not given, though it is recommended that new material should be read through cursorily at home. The study material is composed of texts in the form of dialogues with parallel native language translations. At the end of a course, participants usually exhibit their skills in a play or other presentation, which they have themselves planned and rehearsed.

In suggestopaedic language teaching, the teaching space is as pleasantly and comfortably furnished as possible, unlike an ordinary classroom. High-backed armchairs, placed in a semi-circle, make relaxation easy and bring to mind leisure surroundings rather than a formal teaching environment. Increased coziness can also be achieved by means of other visual elements (pictures, flowers, etc.). Audio-visual aids are used in the teaching, but the emphasis is on human interaction, the formation of reciprocal relationships within the group receiving a great deal of attention.

Since teaching organisation and the working methods used are, on the whole, all very similar in various forms of intensive teaching, they will be described more fully in connection with the presentation of the method developed by G. A. Kitai-gorodskaya (page 70). As will be seen in the following chapter, suggestopaedy has been developed from very different presuppositions and different theoretical principles. Despite this, the original suggestopaedic teaching practice - its teaching phases and working habits, and the system of reciprocal interaction within groups - has essentially retained its position. This factor may lie behind the criticisms of suggestopaedy voiced by, among others, Morgun (1978); his view is that the good learning results achieved on suggestopaedic courses derive from the optimal organisation of the teaching rather from the much-emphasised suggestopaedic factors.

3. The "post-Lozanovian" period: new trends in intensive teaching

In various countries, suggestopaedy has given rise to many trends, stressing differing viewpoints. Various views have been expressed as to what extent suggestopaedic methods can be exploited as isolated tools in teaching. According to some researchers, suggestopaedy can be adapted to all teaching situations (Belanger 1978), but Lozanov himself has strongly opposed the application of suggestopaedic principles or methods in isolation from each other.

Since its inception, efforts to "preserve the purity of suggestopaedic doctrine" have been made. Bulgaria patented the teaching system in 1980, since when it has been very difficult to obtain further information about it. However, as Ilpola puts it, "regardless of warnings, suggestopaedic factions have already formed around the world, who dispute among themselves as to what is orthodox and what is not". Some of these "schools" have also changed their name and are now developing the system in new directions. When examining the adaptations of suggestopaedy in various countries, broad outlines can be distinguished from the 1970s onwards.

In many western countries, the principles of *humanistic psychology* and its views on learning events and teaching underlie suggestopaedy and trends based on it. These emphasise the affective aspects of learning: the significance of a positive learning climate, spontaneous creativity, communication that is meaningful to the individual, and the use of language as a tool for communication and self-fulfilment (see Tella 1984, 39). In the Soviet Union and in the German Democratic Republic, on the other hand, developments in intensive teaching are based mainly on new trends in *cognitive psychology*, which emphasise motivation: the part played by memorising and memory, as well as information processing, learners' attentiveness, the utilisation of student mistakes in teaching, and the notion generally of the primacy of learning over teaching.

Nowadays, the development of suggestopaedy is largely in the hands of research institutes and individuals, each acting

independently and emphasising quite different factors. The spread of suggestopaedy in the West was delayed, in the early stages, by prejudice ("comes from a Communist state") and by the severe criticisms voiced by some researchers concerning scientific deficiencies in Lozanov's research reports (Tella 1984, 40). Dissident opinions of Lozanov's theory have also been put forward in the Soviet Union concerning, for instance, the effect of suggestion in the teaching process (Morgun 1978) and the principles of suggestology (Leontiev 1981). A short review of some individual trends or schools will now follow (see Tella 1984).

Most Finnish teachers and researchers with an interest in suggestopaedy have become acquainted with the method through the agency of the Canadian, Dr Gabriel Racle (training courses arranged by the Helsinki District Summer University), who later began to use the term *interactive pedagogy* for his method. Racle strongly emphasises the importance of neurological research and its exploitation in teaching practice, as well as knowledge of and attention to the individual's diurnal rhythms (Racle 1980).

The best known American applications are SALT, *Suggestive, Accelerative Learning and Teaching*, and LIND, *Learning in New Dimensions*. Both employ many different relaxation and breathing exercises and they also use recollections of previous, pleasant learning experiences in order to bring to mind positive sensations and emotions connected with learning. SALT has its own publication, and it has initiated several international research projects and experiments studying aspects of teaching based on the use of suggestion (e.g. Schuster et al. 1976). Applications of the method have been developed, for instance, in elementary school teaching and in special education. In his training sessions, the director of the LIND Institute in San Francisco, Charles Schmid, emphasises recognition of different styles of learning and the guided use of imagery in the learning process (Schmid 1983).

The most severely criticised application of suggestopaedy in America is the one known as *superlearning* (Ostrander et al. 1982), which has been blamed for the mystification of suggesto-

paedy (Tella 1984, 41). This school emphasises the roles in learning of relaxation exercises, auto-suggestion, and hyper-mnesia, or super-memory. In the United States, the school of *sophrology* (Bancroft 1982) advocates sophrological elements (abdominal breathing, an upright sitting posture, the teacher's use of a relaxing tone, etc.). Similar elements are also found in the suggestopaedic school founded by the French-woman Fanny Saferis (Saferis 1983).

The first countries to have teachers trained in Bulgaria were the Soviet Union, the German Democratic Republic, and Hungary. In the German Democratic Republic Professor Siegfried Kohls runs an Intensive Methods Institute, and also a Special Mnemonological Institute, where research is aimed at increasing the efficiency of teaching and learning. There has been very little information in suggestopaedic literature about the German and Hungarian trends. In the Soviet Union the oldest and best known forms of intensive teaching which have received their impetus from suggestopaedy are I.Y. Shekhter's method (Shekhter 1973, 1979), and the *activation method* developed under the guidance of G.A. Kitaigorodskaya (Kitaigorodskaya 1979). In addition, many teaching experiments and methodological adaptations directed at various target groups have been produced in recent years (e.g. Akishina 1983; Gegechkori 1975, 1978; Plesnevits 1977). The Soviet applications are based on a fairly coherent theoretical conception of the main principles of intensive teaching.

More detailed analysis or comparison of different trends and schools is not possible here. The purpose of this report is to describe only the forms of intensive teaching developed in the Soviet Union and, in particular, to clarify their theoretical presuppositions and central principles. Even so, the description is not exhaustive, but is based on experience and knowledge gained in the preparation of an intensive course in Russian in co-operation with the Russian-language Pushkin Institute in the early 1980s.

III PREMISES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF INTENSIVE TEACHING

In the Soviet Union, suggestopaedy began to be applied to foreign language teaching in the early 1970s, and simultaneously there was an endeavour to create scientific and methodological basic principles for intensive teaching theory (see Leontiev 1981a, 114-118). Although there was agreement with Lozanov on many principles, the researchers also wished to seek their own solutions to the problems, both practical and theoretical, which the extensive application of suggestopaedy to language teaching entailed.

As the most important practical problem, Leontiev (1981a, 114) cites the adaptation of the principles and methods of intensive teaching to the forms and circumstances of language teaching prevailing in the country. In Bulgaria, suggestopaedy originally started out to meet the linguistic requirements of a fairly limited target group (adults travelling abroad), and the method was only later adapted, for instance, to school education. In the Soviet Union, language teaching is very broadly based, and different levels of education and different target groups have to be considered. This also involves a further practical problem, i.e. the training of teachers in the command of intensive teaching methods. Successful application of the method requires meticulously organised further training of teachers before large-scale teaching can be put into practice.

The application of suggestopaedy to language teaching also brought with it some theoretical problems. Many Soviet pedagogues and language teaching methodologists adopted a reserved attitude towards the new method, as its premises and principles were derived mainly from psychotherapy and psychophysiology, while very little attention was paid to questions of general psychology or pedagogy, or to linguistic theory. In addition, the Soviet Union had developed its own firmly established psycho-pedagogic theory of foreign language learning, dating back to the early 1970s, and now wished to develop its own intensive teaching methodology from that basis (Leontiev 1981a, 115).

In the Soviet Union, the *psychological theory of activity* forms a kind of general frame of reference for language teaching methodology, from which can be deduced principles concerning the nature of language and its special features, and the nature of human learning: in other words, it provides basic elements for theories both of language and of learning.

Activity theory has received relatively little attention in Western psychological literature, though interest in it appears to have grown in recent years (see Hedegard et al. 1984, Van Der Veer 1986). The theory was presented in Finland in some publications of the early 1980s (e.g. Engeström 1982; Miettinen 1984; Valtion koulutuskeskus 1984), but it has not been much discussed in connection with language teaching. For this reason, this chapter will describe the fundamental principles of activity theory in some detail. Furthermore, some trends in Soviet pedagogy which have attracted a great deal of attention as far as intensive teaching is concerned, will be examined.

The psychological theory of activity and foreign language learning

In the Soviet Union, psychology is normally defined as the science which investigates the ways in which reality is reflected in human consciousness and the laws which govern the organisation of human activities (see Luria 1979, 9). Speech (whether native or foreign language) is understood as one form of human activity (Leontiev 1982, 4). The branch of psychology dealing specifically with the processes of speech activity is psycholinguistics. According to Luria's (1979, 25) definition, the purpose of psycholinguistics is to clarify the fundamental laws governing speech as a means of communication, the processes by which spoken information is encoded and decoded, and the psychological processes based on linguistic codes and manifesting themselves concretely in human speech activity. In the Soviet Union, the term "psycholinguistics" is less widespread than in the West; however, the

slightly narrower concept of *speech activity theory*¹, which treats speech as one form of activity within the general framework of psychology, is often used as a near synonym (Leontiev 1981a, 91).

1.1. The basic principles of activity theory

In Soviet psychology, L.S. Vygotsky (1896-1934) and his school are cited as the developers of activity theory. The best known representatives of the school are A.N. Leontiev, A.R. Luria, and P.J. Galperin. The following section attempts to clarify briefly the essential components of activity theory (see Luria 1979, 80-94; Talyzina 1981, 32-44; Leontiev 1982, 4-5).

1.1.1. The concept of conscious activity

Soviet psychology differentiates between the concepts of *activity* and *behaviour*, both of which represent forms of activity characteristic of living organisms (e.g. Dridze 1980, 25). The difference between these concepts is related to consciousness; actions can be conscious, paraconscious, or subconscious. Conscious action manifests itself in activity; in other words, activity is conscious, motivated, purposeful, and socially regulated, and by means of it the individual relates to nature and to his socio-cultural environment. Subconscious or paraconscious action, on the other hand, represents behaviour manifested in outwardly visible forms of activity and stereotypes which the individual has adopted either as a result of repetition or imitation. Awareness is the element which distinguishes the human race from other living creatures. Conscious human activity is seen as differing from

¹ "Teorija rečevoj dejatel'nosti" - the corresponding German translation is "Theorie der Sprechfähigkeit" (see Leontiev 1974; Leontiev 1981a).

animal behaviour in three essential respects:

- 1) Conscious human activity is not driven solely by biological urges; rather, it is guided by complex needs, often referred to as "higher" or "spiritual" needs.
- 2) Man does not merely adjust to the realities of his surroundings, as an animal does, but actively attempts to influence and control his environment. This is possible because human beings have the ability to consciously plan their actions.
- 3) Man assimilates a considerable part of his knowledge and skills from general human experience accumulated in the course of social history and transmitted through the medium of teaching. All specifically human activity, both practical (work-related) and theoretical (thought-related), is based on those facilities which have been developed by society and which are stored in the collective memory of society. In practical activity, these facilities are working tools, while in theoretical activity they are symbols, including linguistic symbols. To a large extent, an individual's knowledge, skills, and conduct are not products of his own experience; rather, they have been acquired through the socio-historical experience of many generations.

In the evolution of conscious human activity, significant factors are, on the one hand, *the development of working practices* and, on the other hand, *the influence of language* on the development of psychic processes. There is a view prevalent in Soviet psychology, according to which psychic processes should be examined as products of social history and must not be divorced from the analysis of the physical processes which underlie psychic phenomena. According to Luria (1979, 83), the roots of the birth of human consciousness are not to be found in the characteristics of the "soul" or in the depths of the human organism, but in the internalisation of the historico-cultural experience of human society. Because of the *historico-cultural approach* characteristic of activity theory, it is often referred to, for instance, in the context of school learning theories, as the historico-cultural school or trend.

1.1.2. The importance of language in the development of mental processes

The term "language" usually means a *code system* by means of which objects in the external world, their actions, qualities, and inter-relationships, are labelled (Luria 1979, 86). As stated earlier, language is also a *means of social interaction or communication* through which the individual stores and transmits information and assimilates the accumulated experience of previous generations.

The question of the origin of human language has been the subject of many theories and suppositions. According to Soviet psychology, the prerequisites for the evolution of language are to be found in the social relationships governing work at the beginning of human history. It is supposed that language originated in the forms of communication which people used in work situations and only became detached from practical activities to form an independent code system over many millennia. It is believed that during this developmental phase the first words that referred to objects evolved, and that it was only much later that words began to be used to differentiate between the qualities of things and actions. Language has attained its present form only gradually, in the course of a long historical development.

As a code system referring to objects, operations, qualities, and relationships, and as a tool for the transfer of information, language has been of decisive importance to the continuing structural changes in conscious human activity. The development of language caused, for instance, the following changes in conscious human activity (Luria 1979, 91-94):

- 1) Language made it possible to store information about the external world and to create internal images of that world which could then be used in human activities.
- 2) In addition to referring to concrete objects, words also place perceived things in fixed categories and generalise their essential properties. Thus, besides being a means of communication, language is also a tool of abstract thought.

- 3) The third function of language in the development of consciousness concerns the previously mentioned transfer of human experience. Language provides the opportunity to internalise information gathered in the course of social history and, with the aid of this information, assume command of a wide range of knowledge, skills, and behaviours - something which could not be achieved through the separate actions of individuals. This is also how one should interpret the thought expressed by Belinsky¹ in the early 19th century, namely, that although individual reason is limited, human reason, the reason of mankind, knows no limits (Leontiev 1979a, 7).

Language is of central importance to the development of human consciousness, as it is linked to all areas of conscious human activity and raises human mental processes to a new level. Thus, in the Soviet Union, speech and language analysis is not regarded as merely a subdomain of psychology, but rather as a factor affecting the structuring of the whole of conscious human life.

1.1.3. The structure of activity

One of the purposes of psychology is to examine the structure of human activity. It is possible to distinguish similar structural components in any kind of activity. Ordinarily, four phases of activity are distinguished (Leontiev, 1982, 5):

- 1) *orientation*: the adaptation of an activity to fit the circumstances;
- 2) the *planning phase*: the planning of the activity on the basis of the orientation phase;
- 3) the *implementation phase*: implementation of the plan;

¹ V.G. Belinsky (1811-1848), Russian literary critic and founder of Russian realist aesthetics.

- 4) *checking*: comparison of the results achieved with the original plan.

For example, a lecturer tries, in advance, to take account of his audience and any other factors that may affect his lecture, and to prepare his lecture accordingly. While lecturing, he can observe the audience and estimate how well he has achieved the desired results, whether the audience have understood his message, etc.

Every act has a certain *objective*, and activity is organised in such a way that the objective is to be reached in the best possible way, in the shortest possible time, and with the least trouble possible. The setting of an objective for an activity supposes a *need* for its achievement. For this reason, every activity has its *motive*, or set of motives. It is the motive which provides the stimulus for the performance of the activity.

Activity (*dejatel'nost'*) is realised by means of actions¹ (*deistvie*), each of which may have its own objective. Every action, again, is composed of operations (*operacija*), whose selection depends upon the concrete conditions of the activity. For example, driving a car involves a chain of objective-oriented actions (taking the car out of the garage, warming up the engine, etc.). These actions, in turn, are composed of separate operations; operations are the means by which an action is carried out. A learner driver sets himself each intermediate objective separately; in other words, he acts consciously. Gradually, the separate actions become automatic, and only the final objective remains conscious. In this way, a person first learns to produce each operation separately, and it is only when they have become automatic that they enter the subconscious. Thus, the structural components of activity - actions and operations - initially

¹ The translation of the terms used in activity theory presents problems in many languages. The central concept *dejatel'nost'* (German *Tätigkeit*) is close in meaning to the Finnish *toiminta*, but has no exact parallel in either French or English. In these languages it is usually translated (as here) as *activité*, *activity*. The term *deistvie* (German *Handlung*, Finnish *teko*) is here translated as *action*.

have their own motives and objectives, and are completely conscious. Later, however, they become automatic and merge with the activity as a whole.

In principle, the same transitions also occur in the development of *speech activity* in a foreign language. To begin with, the discrete components of the language - words, structures, grammatical rules, etc. - are assimilated consciously. These later become automatic and subconscious, there remaining only one conscious objective: to express a content.

1.2. The basic theory of controlled learning

The development of an activity also involves other than structural changes; external, material actions and operations change simultaneously into internal, mental processes. This ensues from the fact that human mental actions are genetically based on external actions (cf. the historical development of conscious activity). For example, when a child learns to count, it does so, first, with the aid of objects, and only later comes to perform the task mentally; similarly, external speech processes - thinking aloud - precede internal speech. The change from external to internal actions, and from practical to mental activity, is referred to as *interiorisation*. In Soviet psychology, this has been researched especially by P.Y. Galperin (see Galperin 1972; Galperin & Leontiev 1974).

Vygotsky has studied the evolution of human mental processes at the general level, ignoring both their concrete content and the structure and exact progression of the internalising process. Activity theory attempted to demonstrate the dependence of internal actions on external ones, but did not examine the ways in which such dependence came about in concrete terms. The basis of Galperin's theory was experimental research into internalising processes: he was specifically interested in how interiorisation occurred in its basic form, and what conditions guarantee systematic transfer from external to internal activity. The theory was originally called the theory of the stage-by-stage formation of mental

acts. The theory has since been further developed and is now known as the basic theory of controlled learning (teoriya upravleniya usvoyeniem) (Leontiev 1982, 6).

1.2.1. The dimensions of mental activity

According to Galperin, mental actions develop in stages. During their development, regeneration and change occur related, for instance, to the following properties: the interiorisation of actions, and the generalisation, completeness, and command of these (Galperin 1972; Talyzina 1981, 63-87).

The form of an action, or the *degree of interiorisation*, demonstrates the phased conversion of external, physical forms into internal, mental ones. The *degree of generalisation* signifies the extent to which the individual has been able to differentiate between essential and less essential aspects of an action and its object. This involves the transfer effect of learning: the ability to perform an action appropriately in a different situation, where the details have changed. The *degree of completeness* is the extent to which the individual is able to perform all the related operations of a given action. *Degree of command* refers to the degree of automatisa-tion: how easily and quickly a certain action can be performed.

On the basis of Galperin's theory, Soviet psychologists have attempted to develop a teaching methodology which would take into account the psychological processes which occur in the various stages of development of mental action. According to this theory, the teaching objective is an action which can be performed faultlessly from the beginning, and which, in its final form, is as internalised, generalised, complete, and fully under command as possible.

1.2.2. Three types of orientation

The *orienting basis* of an action may be defined as the sum of those conditions which provide a basis for the development

of an error-free performance. In the assimilation of a new action or concept, Galperin distinguishes three types of orientation which differ from each other as to certain criteria, and which decisively determine both the progress and results of learning. The criteria according to which orienting bases may be evaluated are as follows:

- specificity versus generality. Does the orienting basis concern only a specific performance, or does it cover the general principles of a whole category of performances?
- incompleteness versus completeness. Does the orienting basis include only parts of the essential features of performance, or does it cover all the central factors?
- given versus self-developed model. Is the orienting basis provided for the learner in a finished form, or does the learner develop it for himself?

In accordance with these criteria, the following principal types of orientation can be distinguished:

a) Action in accordance with a model

This type of orientation includes a model of the action and its results, but no directions are provided for its correct performance. The learner himself figures out "at random" how to perform the action. On the basis of this kind of orientation, action development progresses slowly and in an uncontrolled fashion, through extensive trial and error. In accordance with the criteria listed above, this orienting basis is specific, incomplete, and uses a self-developed model. In language learning, an example of this would be a learner placed in a foreign language environment and not given proper language tuition, but learning the language from his environment.

b) Action guided by a model and instructions

The second type of orienting basis includes both a model of the action and its results, and complete instructions concerning the performance of the task. By following the instructions precisely, learning proceeds, in principle, without mistakes and considerably quicker than it does in the preceding type. By repeating the action, the learner

himself reproduces the central requirements and conditions for successful performance outlined by the teacher. With this kind of orientation, the action remains quite stable under changing conditions, and is thus also transferable to new actions having similar structural elements. The orienting basis is specific and complete, and has a given model. This is the most commonly used orientation in foreign language teaching.

c) Action based on systematic analysis

The third type of orientation differs from the others in that a systematic analysis of the task is carried out first: the prerequisites for the proper solution of the task are analysed and discussed before the means appropriate to the given task are established. The compilation of this kind of orienting basis is somewhat more complicated than model-and-instruction based orientation and it requires careful planning. Provided that enough practice is included in the teaching, the rate of learning quickly increases and performance of tasks requires considerably less time than in learning in accordance with other types of orientation. In this case, the orientation is general and complete, and can be used either with a given model or with problem solutions independently produced by the learner.

Galperin is considered the best-known developer of the concept of *orientation* in modern psychology. According to Galperin, learning involves the transformation, through phased development of mental actions, of knowledge that is founded on the orienting basis into knowledge that is comprehended and internalised.

1.2.3. The stages of development of mental actions

According to Galperin, mental action is a psychic reflection of external, material actions. The theory of the stage-by-stage development of mental actions follows the development

of actions from beginning to end - from external, materially realised actions to their internal, mental form. The most important stages in which learning should occur are as follows (Talyzina 1981, 109-134):

1) The orientation stage

Orientation is the most important means by which the learning of a new action may be guided and regulated. The types of orienting basis previously described provide different opportunities for the learning of actions.

2) The material (materialised) stage

In this stage, actions are performed either with the aid of materials (real objects or physical actions appropriate to the subject matter) or representations of these (plans, drawings, models, diagrams, etc.). External support is thus associated either directly with material objects, or with their representations. In teaching new actions, the first task is to compile material or representational forms of exercises and to define their contents. The orienting basis provides a framework for this.

3) The external speech stage

Actions pass from the stage of material-related actions into the form of external speech, in which the object of the action becomes ideational and abstract. In this way also, actions become shorter, operations are performed more quickly, and, because actions are expressed orally, they can easily be controlled.

4) The internal, silent speech stage

After the external speech stage comes a stage of action performance on an internal, mental level. The action, however, is not yet entirely internalised; the learner makes use of speech, mostly directed at himself (silent speech).

5) The internalised stage

In the internalised stage, the form of speech described in 4) above is abbreviated and compressed until only slight

fragments of it remain conscious. Actions are carried out automatically, without conscious thought, and one can now speak of concrete actions being implemented as mental actions.

In teaching, it is important to consider the fact that the internalising process abbreviates and compresses physical actions. Teaching which aims directly at finished, abbreviated actions, without phased internalisation, leads to narrow-ranged mechanical performance. Correspondingly, teaching in which verbal knowledge does not derive from actions on a material level can easily lead to the acquisition of a verbal command of knowledge (verbalism, formalism) without the ability to understand or apply it.

The methodology based on Galperin's theory has been developed and tried out with good results, for instance in training young people for work, and teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic, and native language grammar (Leontiev 1982). Attempts have also been made to apply it to foreign language teaching, but so far with poorer results. This seems to be due, on the one hand, to the psychologists of Galperin's school not being sufficiently well acquainted with the special requirements of language teaching, and, on the other hand, to teachers and methodologists involved in practical education not being given sufficient information about the theory. For these reasons, the interest shown in Galperin's theory in the 1960s decreased after a brief period of enthusiasm (Leontiev & Utes 1986), and it is only in recent years that the theory has surfaced again, in the wake of intensive teaching. It is this theory which is seen as providing a scientific basis for the development of speech activity in foreign language teaching.

1.3. The application of activity theory to foreign language teaching

The concept of learning based on the psychological

theory of activity is close to views expressed in the field of cognitive psychology, and essentially different from the behaviourist learning theory. It emphasises the dynamic and target-oriented nature of human activity, which is controlled and directed by psycho-physiological laws fundamentally different from those which govern animal behaviour.

According to Leontiev (1982, 5), the task of the teacher is to aid the student in transforming the external form of the subject (e.g. a foreign language) into an internal, psychological form (interiorisation). In Soviet psychology, the idea that a person might possess an innate, simple copy of a language system, as Chomsky and his followers thought when they identified language with the speaker's so-called linguistic competence, is considered to be mistaken (see Luria 1975). The aim of teaching is not yet achieved if the learner can convert the language system into a "psycho-physiological ability to speak" (Shcherba), but is unable to realise this ability in spoken communication proper. Thus, a second, very important psychological task is to move from *ability* (competence) to *activity* (performance). The concept of activity thus takes on two meanings in language learning: firstly, it is data processing activity, in which language is assimilated; and, secondly, it is activity, during which the language is *used in communication*.

1.3.1. Speech habits and verbal skills

When examining the structure of speech activity and the dynamics of change in the teaching process, one finds that identical features of speech and language have different status in the different phases of language learning: to begin with, they are objects of conscious, independent activity (e.g. when the task is to construct an interrogative sentence using the correct question word); then they reach a kind of controlled stage and are included in a more complex system in the form of actions (e.g. putting together the entire *structure* of an interrogative sentence); and, finally, they are automatised and become operations (the speaker is concerned only

with the content of the interrogative sentence, not with whether it is correctly expressed). In the final phase, the total spoken expression represents an independent action, which is included in some more general activity. Such a more general activity could, for instance, be communication, i.e. an activity which endeavours to influence the consciousness of another person or group (Leontiev 1982, 8).

When performing the first function - transforming language from an external into an internal, psychological form - the teacher should try to ensure that the learner develops certain speech operations. In addition, these speech operations should be united to form speech actions. Speech operations which have developed to the level of complete performance are referred to as *speech habits* (*rečevye navyki*). Command of a foreign language is command of the system of speech habits. According to Soviet psychology, language exists in the human mind in the precise form of such speech habits, which can at any time be realised as speech activity.

For operations to be referred to as habits, they must fulfil certain requirements, of which Leontiev (1982, 9) cites the following as being of greatest importance:

- 1) automatisisation of the operation (only the content of the expression is conscious)
- 2) the correctness of the operation (production of the correct linguistic form)
- 3) the optimal performance time of the operation (fluency of expression)
- 4) the correct and fluent performance of the operation within the framework of the speech action (activity) of which it forms a part.

The first function of teaching is thus to bring all components of speech to the level of fully developed habits. Ordinarily, the main requirement of foreign language learning is supposed to be the formation of a new system of speech habits. The mechanism of foreign language speech, however, also contains other, already existing, habits (see Leontiev 1982, 9):

- 1) speech habits acquired when learning one's native language, which only need to be transferred to the new language material and used in that context (for example, word order may be similar in different languages, and so need not be learned separately)
- 2) habits that have been learned earlier during native language assimilation but which must be revised or more closely defined when transferred to the foreign language (e.g. different case systems in the two languages)
- 3) habits which must be completely re-developed (e.g. the assimilation of a case system when there is none in the native language).

In the opinion of Leontiev, the development of new habits plays a smaller part in the learning of a foreign language than is generally supposed. The main problem in developing speech activity in a foreign language lies in the mechanisms for the optimal transfer and revision of already existing habits. When developing new habits or revising old ones, one cannot avoid simple and, in certain ways, mechanical practice. In this process it is necessary to take into account that the learner's mental actions are governed by a certain logic aimed at command of these habits (compare the theory of the development of mental actions).

The ability to correctly form and produce linguistic expressions does not yet guarantee realisation of the communicative functions of that language, since speech habits as such (even in a highly developed form) are insufficient in the ever-changing circumstances of communication. For this reason, it is necessary to acquire not only speech habits but also communicative skills, *verbal skills* (*rečevye umenija*). Verbal skills can be considered as a kind of structure existing above the level of speech habits, but they also have a certain psychological independence: for a person to be able to communicate freely and correctly, he must be able to adapt communication to circumstances and, on the basis of this orientation, structure his speech in different ways in different situations (cf. the structure of activity). While speech habits are by nature mechanical, verbal skills have a creat-

tive character. They are closely related to the various aspects of the human psyche: thought, imagination, and emotion - that is to say, to the entire human personality.

On the basis of the above, all forms of practice in language teaching can be divided into two main groups:

- 1) exercises whose purpose is to develop *speech habits* (i.e. operations) and unite them into actions
- 2) exercises whose purpose is to develop *verbal skills*.

Neither of these forms of practice is mechanical by nature. The development of speech habits involves the purposeful restructuring of activity: a movement from the conscious to the automatic; the combining of independent, individual activities to form parts of a larger whole; and the transformation of actions from an external into an internal form. Exercises concerned with the development of verbal skills are particularly demanding, as it is their function to give a creative character to speech activity. In order to develop verbal skills, communication must gradually be made to cover a wider range of circumstances, and attention must be paid to an increasing number of different factors affecting communication.

Until quite recently, psychologists and methodologists have concentrated on problems concerning the development of speech habits and have almost entirely neglected the complex area of verbal skills. The focussing of interest on the discrete components of speech activity and the overall structure they form has meant that the personality of the speaking individual has been ignored. The result of this has been a certain formality in teaching, and the neglect of the hidden resources of the individual, although the use of just such psychological reserves could make the development of speech habits and verbal skills both quicker and easier. Realising the principle of communicativeness in language teaching requires organically combining speech habits and verbal skills in the teaching process, understanding the creative character of speech activity, and exploiting the entire psychological reserves of the personality.

In foreign language teaching, the psychological theory of activity can generate certain practical applications of methodological principles. These will now be described on the basis of Leontiev's (1982) work.

1.3.2. The principle of consciousness

The reciprocal relationship between the conscious and subconscious (automatised) components of activity is a central problem in all teaching. In the first phase of activity development (at the beginning of teaching), most of the components are conscious, as learners ordinarily first become aware of different linguistic means and strive at conscious command of them. As activity develops, these means begin gradually to be used subconsciously and automatically and, in the final phase, all that remains conscious is the ultimate aim: to give expression to a certain content.

Putting the principle of consciousness into practice in language teaching requires an understanding of the content of speech; consciousness of the components of speech; and knowledge of the way in which these components are used (Shchukin 1984, 55). Thus, the learner must understand both the linguistic elements of which speech consists and the rules according to which speech is constructed. Command of language presupposes the independent selection of forms corresponding to the content of a given expression, which is impossible without explanations in the form of rules and instructions. Choice of correct linguistic form, again, requires knowledge of grammatical rules, and this also enables the choice of forms to become automatised. Automatisation can only be achieved by conscious assimilation. The linguistic means used can always, even in an oral speech situation, be consciously recognised when required, i.e. they can be consciously selected and their appropriateness to the content of an expression evaluated, etc.

The principle of consciousness has always been one of the central questions of language teaching methodology in the

Soviet Union. This principle was earlier interpreted by B.V. Belyayev (1968) to mean that foreign language study always begins with an explanation of some rule and its conscious recognition. Only then is practice provided, aiming at automatic command of operations and their application to different speech situations. According to current conceptions (e.g. Passov 1977), conscious recognition can be postponed to the phase where automatisisation has already occurred, at least up to a certain level; in other words, when the operation has already become a speech habit.

The principle of consciousness is closely connected with another central question, which has been a kind of watershed in the historical development of foreign language teaching methods, i.e. the relationship between native and foreign language learning (see Laihiala-Kankainen 1986, 39).

1.3.3. The principle of reliance on the native language

In the context of activity theory, the description has so far mainly centred on those operations which begin at the conscious level and which, as they develop, become automatic and merge into a single overall activity. There are also operations which evolve in another way, i.e. through simple imitation, as happens, for example, when a child is learning its native language. It is only later - when native language is studied at school - that these operations become objects of conscious awareness and subject to conscious control. The child is then gradually able simultaneously to generalise native language phenomena and organise them systematically.

In foreign language learning, this process is reversed. While assimilation of the native language begins with free and spontaneous expression, developing through conscious awareness of speech forms and their conscious control, assimilation of a foreign language begins with conscious awareness and control, with the aim of achieving free and spontaneous speech. There is a certain connection between these, in principle, opposite processes: conscious and purposeful for-

eign language assimilation is quite clearly based on a certain developmental stage of the native language, and vice versa; foreign language learning opens the way to higher forms of native language command (Leontiev 1982, 8).

Basing itself on this argument, Soviet methodology emphasises the importance of the native language in foreign language teaching, especially in the case of language teaching organised within the framework of the formal school system, where, from the start, the child generally has a conscious grasp of his native language system. Foreign language learning - especially as regards the grammatical system - necessarily presupposes conscious awareness of it at some stage. If the learner does not arrive at a conscious grasp of the foreign language system, and if he has not been through the process of becoming consciously aware of the grammar of his native language, the acquisition of a foreign language remains, for him, a mechanical process; in other words, he cannot internalise it. If he has become aware of and generalised the grammatical structure of his native language, then he will, in any case - even without the help of a teacher - absorb the foreign language through the medium of this experience (i.e. the native language system). Psychologically, no other process is possible, as the foreign and native language systems are, of necessity, compared with each other.

The principles of consciousness and reliance on the native language have been clearly discernible in all wider applications of foreign language teaching methods in the Soviet Union. They are also reflected in the names of the methods, e.g. the *conscious comparison method* (1940s-1960s) and the *conscious-practical method* (from the 1960s) (see Kapitonova & Shchukin 1979).

The formal tradition of foreign language teaching has been very much in the foreground of Soviet methodology. Direct methods - where the significance of the native language as an intermediary in foreign language learning is either totally denied, or at least underestimated - have not gained a notable foothold in the Soviet Union. So, for instance, Leontiev (1982, 8) states that the successes attained by dir-

ect methods are due to the fact that learners relate the foreign language to the native language in any case, and that this happens regardless of the teacher or the method. It is precisely for this reason that the conscious direction and command of this parallel process is held to be so important in Soviet methodology, and why particular attention is paid to it in language teaching.

1.4. The evolution of speech activity theory

In the late 1960s, when suggestopaedy spread to the Soviet Union, the dominant foreign language teaching method was the *conscious-practical* method (*soznatel'no-praktičeskij metod*), developed under the direction of B.V. Belyayev, and based on the existing stage of development of the psychological theory of activity (see Belyayev 1963). The development of the speech activity theory was begun at about the same time, its central concepts (speech activity, speech acts, speech operation, speech habits, verbal skills, etc.) becoming established in the 1970s, both within the theoretical framework of language teaching and in language teaching methodology.

The development of speech activity theory is linked with changes in the field of psycholinguistics. In his examination of the development of psycholinguistics, Leontiev (1981a, 91-99), citing the analysis of Mehler and Noizet (1974), distinguishes three "generations" of psycholinguistics, which will now be briefly described. Although speech activity theory actually belongs to the third generation, an outline of the first two stages of psycholinguistics provides a background to later developments and an illustration of the difference between Soviet ways of thinking and prevalent Western trends and conceptions.

The first stage of development begins with the emergence of psycholinguistics as an independent scientific field in the late 1950s. The central ideas of "first generation" psycholinguistics are well described in "Psycholinguistics" by C. Osgood and T. Sebeok (1954). The new field was clearly founded

on a behaviouristic, later a neo-behaviouristic, approach; speech was interpreted as systems of direct or indirect responses to verbal or non-verbal stimuli. Despite the analysis of linguistic concepts and categories, Osgood's psycholinguistics were founded on psychology. According to Leontiev's interpretation, the characteristics of the new scientific field were *reactivity, stability, atomism, and individualism*.

The psycholinguistic theory outlined by Osgood became the object of severe criticism in the 1960s, especially by Chomsky and Miller and their supporters, who are considered as representatives of "*second generation*" psycholinguists. Rules and systems of rules were now emphasised, as opposed to the earlier atomism, and at the same time a shift from a psychological to a linguistic orientation took place; psychological processes were reduced to spoken manifestations of linguistic structures. The reactive character of psycholinguistics was retained, although the interpretation of the verbal reaction proposed by Chomsky and Miller was considerably more complex than the one based on behaviourist principles. The individualistic aspect was also retained - actually in a more emphatic form, because of the central position occupied by the concept of an innate linguistic aptitude.

The views of Chomsky and Miller were criticised in the Soviet Union, particularly by psychologists (see Leontiev 1974a; Luria 1975), who were just then, in the 1960s, in the process of creating the basic concepts of their own speech activity theory based on the general activity theory. The speech activity theory that was developed in the Soviet Union, together with the French school of Fresse and Vallon and West German Marxist psychology, all influenced the emergence of the "*new psycholinguistics*" in the 1970s. According to Mehler and Noizet (1974), one can speak of a "*third generation*" of psycholinguists, who again tend to lean heavily on psychology - in the opinion of some researchers, the psychology of linguistics should even be entirely incorporated as part of cognitive psychology. The framework of research in the "*new psycholinguistics*" has broadened from the sentence to include context and situation. It has also moved from the abstract

analysis of speech processes to research into thought and communication processes (see Bruner 1974-75).

Some special features in the development of speech activity theory in the 1980s can be mentioned (Leontiev & Utes 1986). Communication psychology, researching the laws of communication, which became established in the mid-1970s as a separate scientific field, considerably influenced the further development of the theory of speech activity and the evolution of a psychological theory of oral communication. Communication in foreign languages was specifically set as the main aim of language teaching in the Soviet Union in the 1970s. Communicativeness has, since then, been one of the most central didactic requirements of teaching. The psychology of communication has also stimulated a fresh assessment of the nature of the teaching-learning process by emphasising the significance of socio-psychological factors in the pedagogical process. In conjunction with this, the concept of *pedagogical communication* was developed. It will be examined more closely in the following chapter.

The concept of the nature of speech behaviour held by earlier representatives of psycholinguistics was basically *algorithmic*. According to a general definition, an algorithm is the logical arrangement of acts aiming at the solution of some problem, in which a certain given working method is closely followed (Hirsjärvi 1982, 12). Algorithms are often constructed in order to facilitate the solution of problems in which the required functions can be presented as an unambiguous sequence of task components. In the algorithmic interpretation of speech behaviour, speech behaviour strategy is viewed as closely tied to a concrete situation. This way of thinking is generally influenced by behaviouristic views of verbal behaviour as a reactive activity.

In contrast to this kind of algorithmic interpretation, there has been an attempt in the Soviet Union to develop a *heuristic* psycholinguistic model (Leontiev 1974b), whose premises are founded on the activity theory described earlier. According to this approach, speech activity (speech action) should be seen as analogical to problem solving, and thus as

intellectual activity in a broad sense. In other words, speech can be interpreted as a process of communicative problem solving, with different phases of activity distinguishable within it: orientation, planning, implementation, and checking (cf page 25). Orientation can occur either in a certain problem situation, which leads to the expression of communicative intent, or in the circumstances of a communicative task which one attempts to perform. The orientation and planning phase may include very complex orientational activity (e.g. taking the form of dialogue in speech), and the choice of a general strategy of speech behaviour belongs expressly to this phase, while tactical choice is postponed to the implementation phase.

The emphasis on the significance of the orientation and planning phase in speech activity theory derives from the conception that speech processes should be regarded as *intentional activity*. The application of the heuristic principle to language teaching and learning involves emphasising the creative character of learning and taking account of individual differences and emotional factors in teaching. In other words, factors of learner personality become central to the teaching-learning process.

2. New trends in Soviet pedagogy

Assumptions and theories in various fields of psychology have often influenced and stimulated pedagogic thought. According to Petrovsky (1979), the *socio-psychological aspect* has, in recent years, been very much in the forefront of the development of Soviet psychology. This becomes apparent, for instance, in the active research into problems in the fields of personalistic psychology, communication psychology, group dynamics, and small group research. The observations and theories of social psychology have so far been very little used in pedagogy and language teaching methodology. However, the application to teaching of the latest research results in this discipline could, for instance, help to solve the follow-

ing problems: realisation of the common aims of teaching and education, creating an optimal psychological environment for learning, and the application of collective forms of work to teaching.

Soviet psychology has only fairly recently established its position as an independent discipline in the Soviet Union. In the 1960s, there was lively discussion about the research aims of social psychology, and criticisms were expressed concerning Western, and particularly American, social psychology. At the same time, there was an attempt to create a Soviet theory of social psychology founded on a Marxist frame of reference. From the early 1970s, this theory has been further developed within the framework of the *stratometric approach*. Though the theory is not yet fully developed, it is already possible, according to Petrovsky (1979), to speak of a specific psychological theory of the collective, the basic principles of which are closely connected with the theory of activity in general psychology.

The following main areas of research are generally distinguished within Soviet social psychology (Petrovsky 1979, 18):

- 1) socio-psychological phenomena occurring in large groups (macro level)
- 2) research concerned with small groups (micro level)
- 3) personalistic social psychology.

From the point of view of pedagogy, the last two areas are central.

Small group research has traditionally concentrated on the mapping out of inter-personal relationships within a group. Research has been done on group atmosphere, leadership, composition and cohesiveness, interaction, etc. Small groups have been divided, according to their nature, for instance, into formal and informal groups. Soviet social psychology has shown special interest in research into the *collective* as a special form of group. In the context of this approach, a new classification basis has been adopted, distinguishing between groups according to their stage or degree of development.

Personalistic social psychology is close to the area of concern of general psychology, but the central object of interest is the interaction between the personality and the group. Many of the special features of psychophysiology and personalistic psychology (e.g. temperament, character, or abilities) can also be examined from a social viewpoint; for instance, interest can be focussed on the extent to which a personality meets the expectations of society or a social group, how responsive a person is to influences, how well he adopts the values of the group, etc. Socio-psychological factors of personality thus include factors connected with personality orientation, self-esteem, conformity, etc.

Two problem areas of social psychology have come very much to the fore in the development of intensive teaching. The first of these is concerned with the social psychology of groups and collectives and involves the *collective nature of learning* in the circumstances of intensive teaching. The second area of concern is related to communication psychology and comprehends *pedagogic influence and the regulation of pedagogic interaction* in the teaching process. This chapter attempts to provide theoretical premises and basic data for understanding these phenomena; they will be discussed later in a more concrete context, when the principles of intensive teaching are presented (see page 72).

2.1. The psychological theory of the collective and language teaching

One of the leading principles of Soviet pedagogy is the idea, originally proposed by A.S. Makarenko, of education "in and through the collective". Pedagogic theories of the collective were later developed further by, for instance, such well-known educational theorists as N.K. Krupskaya, S.T. Shchatsky, and V.A. Suhomlinsky. According to their view, teaching always has an educational function, and the group, the collective, is the natural community through which, and with the aid of which, this function can be realised. In this

sense one can speak of a *learner collective*.

Since the concept of the collective as such is, in general, unfamiliar to the Western reader and researcher, who easily brings to it various preconceived value judgments, this chapter will start out by giving a scientific definition of the collective and defining its position as an object of socio-psychological research. Following the clarification of these basic concepts, the application of the psychological theory of the collective to the process of foreign language teaching and the different phases in the formation of a learner collective will be discussed.

2.1.1. The collective as an object of socio-psychological research

Traditional social psychology does not include the concept of the collective, as its object of research is generally considered to be only the group, or small group, and the phenomena and laws associated with it. For this reason, the collective - insofar as it appears in a text - is often identified with the group, although these concepts are not strictly equivalent. In more recent Soviet socio-psychological literature, the collective is very precisely defined as a specific group with its own characteristic features.

According to Petrovsky (1979, 227), a *collective* is a group in which inter-personal relationships are formed on a basis of a socially valuable and personally significant joint activity. This definition thus emphasises two special features, which act simultaneously as criteria for the collective: 1) the *content* of collective activity (What kind of activity has drawn the group together? What is the object of the activity and what are its functions?) and 2) the social and personal *significance* of the activity (Is the activity based on socially important values? What is its social significance?).

In Soviet social psychology, the collective is understood as a highly developed group, whose internal processes and laws are basically different from the phenomena prevail-

ling within diffuse groups. A *diffuse group* - which is the object of research in traditional Western social psychology - is not socially determined; in other words, it may not be examined from the viewpoint of joint activity content and the value attached to this feature, but rather, the nature of the interactive relationships within the group is seen as being *directly* determined by other factors, such as group size, frequency of contact, group cohesion, etc. Soviet researchers criticise Western social psychology because it does not distinguish between different level groups according to their degree of development, but that the same processes and laws are assumed to be active in all groups.

According to Petrovsky (1979, 207), the interaction between individuals in a group can, in principle, be portrayed in two dimensions: *functional relations* (responsible dependency) and *personal relations*. In diffuse groups, contacts are created through personal relationships (sympathy, antipathy, etc.), while in a collective it is the functional relations which dominate, i.e. the interaction between individuals in a collective is *mediated* by the actual content of activity. Although this "theory of the indirect functional basis of interpersonal relationships", formulated in the early 1970s, is still at the developmental stage, it is possible, according to Petrovsky, to speak of a *psychological theory of the collective*, whose basic premises are common with those of the theory of activity.

Central to this new socio-psychological theory is the *stratometric* concept (*stratometričeskaja koncepcija*). In the stratometric approach, interpersonal relationships in the collective are examined in terms of a multi-layered hierarchical system, in which some levels or strata can be distinguished. Each stratum has its own characteristic features and socio-psychological laws. The collective hierarchy can be described with the aid of the following diagram (Petrovsky 1979, 209):

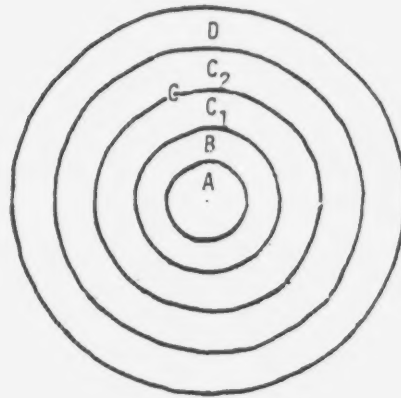


Figure 1: The structure of interpersonal relations in the collective

The central stratum or nucleus (stratum A) of the structure of a collective comprises the activity of the group, the contents of group activity, and its socio-economic and socio-political characteristics. It represents a non-psychological level and forms part of the social structure. Examination of the group as part of the social structure requires evaluation of its activity in relation to the values prevailing in society. In the stratometric model - as in the psychological theory of activity - the socio-historical aspect is thus emphasised, and it, rather than psychology, has the commanding position.

The next stratum (B) is the first strictly psychological level. At this level, the object of study is the relationship of group members to the activity, its aims, functions, principles, and motivation, as well as the social significance of the activity to group members. The third stratum (C) comprises the characteristics of interpersonal relationships mediated by the content of joint activity and the principles, ideas, and values accepted in the group. Various phenomena and concepts of group activity, such as the collective's self-

determination, common values, emotional identification, etc., belong to this level. This stratum is also divided into two parts (C_1 and C_2), the first of which comprises phenomena and processes related to activity content, while the second comprises factors related to the social value of the activity.

The outermost stratum of the structural hierarchy of the collective (stratum D) comprises the surface level of interpersonal relationships, in which the factors regulating relationships are mainly other than significant to the collective. Into these interactive relationships, the content of group activity either does not enter at all, or only very faintly.

The specific theoretical significance of the stratometric approach is, according to Petrovsky (1979, 216), that it extends the activity principle central to general psychology to cover the field of social psychology. According to activity theory, an individual engaged in goal-directed activity changes the surrounding world and at the same time himself, growing into a personality; similarly, a social group involved in socially significant joint activity changes its environment and, thereby, also its own internal system of group relations and interaction, and develops into a collective. The group is seen as the subject of collective activity.

Group activity can, for instance, be productive (a production collective), scientific (a researcher collective), or educational (a learner collective). The next chapter will introduce the application of the psychological theory of the collective to teaching in greater detail, and will also examine the various phases in the evolution of a collective.

2.1.2. The formation of a collective in the teaching process

In traditional teaching, where so-called frontal teaching is the prevalent method, learning mainly presupposes an *individual data acquisition process*. In the teaching situation, interaction occurs mainly between the teacher and an individual student, whereas interaction between learners, aimed at assimilation of the teaching material, is generally slight or

only episodic; it is, rather, an undesirable, and at times even a punishable, activity. Although different forms of group work have gained support in recent years, teaching and education still rely on individual data acquisition, and learning contains very few collective features.

This has aroused a great deal of discussion and criticism among Soviet pedagogues, partly because the common purpose of unified teaching and education is considered to be very poorly realised in traditional teaching, while the all-round development of the learner's personality is seen as firmly linked with the generation of a learner collective and group interaction. In recent years, this conception has been reinforced by the results of teaching experiments which show that the application of collective work forms produces significant changes in the processes of teaching and education (e.g. Karpenko 1981; Petrovsky 1979; Petrovskaya 1981; Semiakina 1981).

A learner collective might be characterised by adapting the general definition of a collective to signify a group in which the content of joint activity is learning (e.g. foreign language learning), and in which the social and personal significance of the activity is determined by the value placed on knowledge (or skills, e.g. linguistic skills) in the community. The organisation of the teaching-learning process determines interaction between group members. In contrast to the frontal teaching of individuals one can speak of *collective teaching* (e.g. Leontiev & Kitaigorodskaya 1983), in which interaction takes place between the teacher and the student collective. In this kind of teaching the reciprocal relationship between learners is also important; intellectual tasks are worked out jointly within a framework of task and role division.

In a group, a collective evolves through certain phases. It can be seen as a process which may be consciously influenced by different measures. In intensive teaching, which brings group members together each day for quite long periods (4-6 hours), a collective can evolve relatively quickly, if the teacher can direct this process. A description follows

of the different phases in the evolution of a collective in intensive teaching and of the teacher's role as the promoter of this development (see Karpenko 1981, 63-65):

1) The initial phase: testing

Initial testing is generally arranged for intensive teaching candidates, with the aim of trying to choose persons having a largely similar starting level of knowledge (linguistic skills). This is the teacher's first opportunity to orientate herself to the future group.

2) The contact phase: the development of inter-relationships within the group and the provision of behavioural models

The evolution of a learner collective begins during the first meeting of group and teacher. This contact phase, which generally lasts 3-4 days in intensive teaching, is of particular importance and carries a large share of the responsibility for determining the nature of the development of subsequent activities. The most efficient mode of leadership for a group that is still in the process of formation is well organised and centralised guidance: the teacher must immediately take the initiative in the group, fix attention on herself, and direct the teaching process at all levels. It is the teacher's task to provide a model for inter-relationships within the group and a set of behavioural norms; in other words, she must demonstrate by example the kind of group activity that is desirable, positive, and acceptable, as well as what, on the other hand, is undesirable. If the teacher cannot take the initiative from the beginning, the group may instinctively begin to develop undesirable forms of interaction and behaviour, which it will be difficult to change later.

"Authoritarian" leadership of the contact group in this specific phase is based on the fact that a group in which people do not know each other - or do so only very slightly - is particularly susceptible to the influence of authoritarian suggestion. During the first few days of activity, the group easily accepts the model offered by

the teacher, mainly through imitation and the mechanism of suggestion. This model later develops into a norm, habits, and customs, and becomes established as a behavioural stereotype.

- 3) The transition phase: transfer of regulation of norms and behavioural models to the group

The behavioural norms and models conveyed by the teacher gradually begin to act as regulators of interaction in the group. In this phase, on the 5th-6th day of teaching, interpersonal relationships generally display the first distinctive signs of the evolution of a collective:

- 1) a growing interest in the teaching and a wish to be involved in group community,
- 2) more active communication,
- 3) reinforcement of empathy and of the feeling of belonging to the group.

- 4) The establishment phase: the establishment of functional and friendly relations in the group

In this phase, the teacher changes her style of leadership: she stands aside more and more in order to give the group a chance to express its own activeness. The activeness and initiative of group members must be encouraged, since activeness expresses a growing interest in learning activity, and interested participation, again, points to a high level of internal motivation. From this phase onwards the teacher's activity should be directed mainly towards the achievement of two aims: teaching effectively and maintaining and reinforcing learning motivation. In addition to this, the teacher's task is to control and guide group activity, if the normal progress in the process of evolution of the collective is in any way disturbed.

In the establishment phase, features typical of a well-developed collective can be perceived in the group; for instance, emotional identification within the group and the development of a *collectivistic identification* (Petrovsky 1979, 227), in other words, relating to group members in the same

way as to the self, and vice versa. This kind of attitude is characterised by, for instance, a lack of egotism, a readiness to support and help others, to give way when necessary, and to work to achieve the general aims of the group. *Emotional identification* within the group, again, signifies a kind of interpersonal relationship in which the emotions of each member of the group motivate the behaviour of other group members in some way, channelling behaviour in such a direction that tasks related to the joint activity are performed, and, at the same time, any frustrating factors are removed (Petrovsky 1979, 226). The following features are also characteristic of an established collective: the great cohesion of the group, the uniformity of value orientation (all members of the group have a uniform conception of the value and importance of foreign language learning, as well as of the suitability and efficiency of the teaching method), and group members' collectivist self-determination.

When the group has acquired the characteristics of a collective, it can be regarded as a learner collective, capable of self-determination and self-development. The teacher's role is now to act as a knowledgeable authority; in all other respects she is an equal member of the collective and attached to it by bonds of function and friendship. The teacher retains elements of her earlier function as leader by providing information, controlling and stimulating group processes, and still providing support and encouragement.

The theory of collective teaching and learning is only in its developmental phase, but has already aroused very considerable interest in intensive teaching circles. Though this form of teaching has been presented here as an alternative to traditional frontal teaching, based on individual data acquisition and assimilation, the collective principle does not exclude individual learning. On the contrary, activity, creativity, and individuality are especially emphasised in collective learning theory, individualism being merely interpreted differently than in traditional teaching.

Individualism and the harmonious development of personality in a learner collective are realised through internal

group interaction, where learners relate to each other through group activity content, and in which the distinctive personal characteristics of each group member enrich and support the activity of the group as a whole. The learner collective must also be aware of the aims of the joint activity. Initially, the group is engaged in achieving short-term aims, but, with the development of the collective, long-term objectives - perspectives of activity with social significance - become increasingly important. Attainment of the joint aim presupposes an often very complex division of labour, in which every group member has his own individual role and function, and in which awareness of the self as part of the whole has a great educational power. For this reason, collective work requires consciously organised and well planned pedagogical communication by the teacher.

2.2. The premises of pedagogical communication

Pedagogical influences are always at work in education and teaching. The nature of communication in the teaching process and its reflection in learning have in recent years been clearly recognised as forming one of the central problems of teaching and upbringing. One indicator of this is the formulation of the concept of *pedagogical communication* (*pedagogičeskoe obščenie*). This term was first used by A.A. Leontiev at the 5th Delegates' Meeting of Soviet psychologists in 1977 (Leontiev 1981b, 10), after which it quickly spread into general use¹. The first work to deal with pedagogical communication was Leontiev's *Pedagogičeskoe obščenie*², published in 1977, in which he attempted to describe the con-

¹ In Finland, the term 'pedagogical communication' has been used by Olkinuora (1984) in a lecture on basic socialisation in schools.

² An article published in the journal *Kasvatus* (2/1984) and written on the basis of Leontiev's work, contained material partly similar to that presented in this chapter.

tent of the concept and its research premises. The early years of this decade then saw the appearance of some theoretical and applied studies on the subject of pedagogical communication (Bodalev 1983; Bodalev & Kovalev 1983; Kan-Kalik & Kovalev 1985), and attempts have also been made to apply its principles to teacher training.

In the Soviet Union, pedagogical communication has been very much in the forefront in connection with the development of intensive teaching, as the central prerequisite for this form of teaching is the teacher's conscious control over her own communication and that occurring in the group, as well as the socio-psychological processes associated with it. A more precise analysis of this concept must be prefaced by a general definition of communication and a definition of pedagogical communication with its special features.

2.2.1. Communication as activity

According to the traditional interpretation, communication contains elements of "exchange" and "transfer": communication is taken to mean any kind of influence (information, ideas, feelings, etc.) that is transferred or exchanged between two or more people (Mehrebian 1972; Wiio 1977). Communication is thus defined from the point of view of the speaker (sender). Communication ordinarily presupposes two persons, the speaker (sender) and the listener (receiver), and a model of communication is structured as a two-way process involving these two interlocutors.

Leontiev (1979, 4-6) proposes an interpretation of communication that is different in principle. He defines communication as a process (processes) which is realised within a certain social community, whether a group, a collective, or a whole society. This process is not interindividual but *social*. According to Leontiev, communicative processes are created by social needs or necessities. When the significance of language in human activity was considered in connection with activity theory (page 24), it was stated that lan-

guage derives from the forms of communication required in the course of work. According to this interpretation, communication serves collective activity, and simultaneously expresses and realises social relationships.

Leontiev (1979b, 5) distinguishes between three forms or types of communication:

- 1) *Socially oriented communication (social'no orientirovannoe obščenie)*

Communication of this type is represented by, for instance, a lecture, talk, television appearance, etc., in which the speaker acts as the representative of some community (collective or social group). His task is social in the sense that he tries to prompt his audience into being socially active, or to give them socially meaningful ideas, to inform them, or to change their opinions, value system, etc.

- 2) *Materially oriented group communication (gruppovoe predmetno orientirovannoe obščenie)*

This form of communication is connected with collective work, and its purpose is to help members of working communities to make decisions about the tasks allotted to them. The goal of communication is thus the organisation of interaction and co-operation in the work process, and it is closely connected with interindividual relationships within production.

- 3) *Personally oriented communication (ličnostno orientirovannoe obščenie)*

Most theorists of communication take this form of communication, which consists of interaction between one individual and another, as their premise. This kind of communication can vary as regards objectives: it can be factual, i.e. oriented towards some joint activity and thus, in principle, congruent with materially oriented communication, or it can "clarify relationships", in other words, have no connection with activity.

The teaching situation involves social communication, which entails much more than a transfer of information. Pedagogical communication can, generally speaking, be defined as

interaction between teacher and learners (pedagogic collective) in a teaching process which has certain pedagogical aims. According to Leontiev (1979b, 8; see also Kan-Kalik & Kovalev 1985), pedagogical communication is optimal when:

- it takes account of the creative nature of learning activity
- it tries to develop every aspect of the learner's personality
- it creates a favourable emotional climate for study and, above all, prevents the development of "psychological barriers" against learning
- the teacher is in control of the socio-psychological processes in the group
- the teacher's personal qualities can be exploited in the teaching process.

According to Olkinuora (1984), pedagogical communication means the purposeful utilisation of all means of communication and genuine human interaction to ensure the learner's healthy and harmonious development. Consequently, it must be interpreted in a much broader way than that provided by traditional descriptions and analyses of the teaching process, in which the teacher is considered as being a provider of information transfer and verbal directions, while learner activity is considered almost exclusively from the point of view of learning results and behaviour in reaction to stimuli provided by the teacher.

2.2.2. The skills of pedagogical communication

According to Klimov's (1974, 143) classification¹, education and teaching belong to those forms of professional activ-

¹ Klimov's classification of trades and professions, evolved from relationships between the individual and his surroundings, comprises the following five categories: "individual - nature", "individual - technology", "individual - artistic form", "individual - system of symbols", and "individual - individual".

ity where communication plays a considerable part, and which require intersocial abilities and skills (socioeconomic type of activity). Klimov defines intersocial abilities as the personal characteristics which ensure successful interaction between people. These skills include, for instance, understanding and influencing people, establishing contacts, and organising joint activities. Communication is the main means by which educational and teaching tasks are carried out. In language teaching its significance is even more apparent, since communication is not only the *means* of teaching but also its *objective*: foreign language teaching is explicitly the teaching of communication in the language concerned. For this reason, particular attention should be paid to the communicative skills of the teacher.

In traditional didactics and methodology, the communicative skills of the teacher have not generally been analysed, although there is often some general discussion of pedagogic talent or pedagogic intuition (e.g. P.P. Blonsky). Leontiev (1979b, 11) does not look on pedagogic intuition as an inborn characteristic but as the result of a certain kind of internalised activity which has become a component of the personality: what was earlier understood in the form of rules and instructions is, with the internalisation of activity, changed into a subconscious mechanism (interiorisation process). In different people this internalisation occurs in different ways: the same activity "grows" into different temperaments, characters, personality types. It is from this that different personal types of activity and behaviour are derived - and also teachers' different styles of communication.

The teacher's *personal characteristics* determine the individual style of her activity: what means and practices of concrete pedagogical influencing she chooses and how she combines them. Regardless of these personal characteristics she must also possess *professional skills*. These professional skills - including pedagogical communication - are, according to Leontiev, skills which can be learned, and which every teacher should possess.

It is possible to distinguish between two aspects of

communicative skills. On the one hand, one can consider the communicative use of the teacher's personality in the communicative process, her *self presentation*. In communication psychology this means: the way in which a person presents himself to an interlocutor to make it easier for the latter to form a picture of him. It is a question of providing a model of one's personality, which is an indispensable prerequisite of efficient communication, since it helps the interlocutor to orient himself with respect to the communicative situation. The other aspect of communicative skills is in the *technique of communication and contact*, which includes both verbal and non-verbal communication.

From a pedagogical viewpoint, Leontiev (1979b, 35) includes the following as central communicative skills:

- skills of social perception ("reading faces")
- the ability to understand a learner's personality and psychological state from external signs
- the communicative use of one's own personal characteristics
- verbal communication skills (optimal speech, in a psychological sense)
- skills in establishing and maintaining contact on verbal and non-verbal levels.

These skills may be classified into three main groups (Leontiev 1981b, 13-16), the first of which is formed by skills and abilities in *communicative orientation*. This group includes all the skills which are prerequisites of genuine and worthwhile communication; it also includes the functions and objectives of communication: the reason for being in a communicative situation and what is to be achieved by it. Since a lesson generally involves materially oriented group communication, the teacher must consider the size and composition of the group, the relationships between group members, as well as their special characteristics and orientation towards temporal and spatial factors of communication, etc.

The orientation phase requires the teacher to make accurate observations and be socially perceptive. Not every teacher has a command or even an awareness of such orientation

skills, while the learners, who have only just begun practising models of communication, are even less likely to. The learning of communicative skills in a foreign language is difficult if all the orientational factors requiring consideration vary freely. For this reason, strict limits must be imposed upon such variations in a teaching situation: factors affecting communication must be selected and combined in such a way as to guarantee optimal conditions for communication. As the skills and habits of communication gradually develop in precisely demarcated and controlled communicative situations, it becomes possible to include a wider range of situations and factors affecting them, and thus to guarantee learning transfer.

The second group of communicative skills is made up of *communicative abilities and skills proper* which are connected with communication content. These include the following organisational and communicative skills: the skill of involving the whole group in communication and of guiding its activity, the skill of creating an emotionally favourable teaching atmosphere, making use of one's own personality in communication and the skills of oral communication proper, etc.

In the teaching situation, the problems of motivating learners, especially with the specific short-term purpose of maintaining the interest of group members, are closely connected with this performance phase of communicative activity. The emotional atmosphere of the teaching situation also depends largely on the teacher's communicative skills and style. Emotional tension is normally divided into purely emotional tension and so-called *operational tension* (Leontiev 1979b, 7). The former condition is a result of past negative learning experiences which connect feelings of failure with learning situations and which can result in permanent negative emotions towards some subject or the whole teaching process, whereas operational tension is generated, for instance, in certain problem-solving situations and it motivates the learner towards optimal performance. The teacher can, through her own communication, facilitate the removal of "psychological barriers" to learning and stimulate the generation of operational tension.

The third group of communicative skills can be divided into *contact skills* and *technical skills*, which can be used as separate techniques. Such skills are, for instance, the command of a behavioural technique (e.g. rhetorical skills), non-verbal communication skills, and the application of various communicative techniques to specific aims in specific situations.

Research into pedagogical communication is still at an unadvanced stage, as is its application to teaching and teacher training. In the Soviet Union there is an intensive teaching research group working at the Academy of Educational Science, whose task is, for instance, to produce a teaching programme in pedagogical communication which could be applied to at least the following forms of teaching: 1) the training of teachers in intensive methodology, 2) further training of teachers, 3) training programmes for pedagogical institutes and teacher training colleges. Individual teaching programmes in pedagogical communication have already been tried out in several establishments (see Leontiev 1981b, 12-13).

Leontiev (1979b, 28) emphasises that pedagogical communication training, in fact, involves the creation of a completely "new type of teacher". The development of the teacher's personality is one of the most important aims of training, since the creative level of the teaching-learning process cannot be achieved by technical measures alone. The most important task of the teacher is seen as being the organisation and direction of learning and - as is usual in Soviet pedagogy - the combining of teaching and education in a teaching process that forms an organic whole.

3. The theoretical base of intensive teaching

The previous section provided a description of the central theoretical premises which have influenced the further development of intensive teaching in the Soviet Union. Compared with "classical" suggestopaedy, the theoretical principles of teaching have broadened and diversified. The efficiency of intensive teaching methods is thought to be based

on the combined influence of several factors; and thus it is also necessary in developing teaching to resort to the research results of several scientific disciplines - chiefly general psychology, social psychology, and psychophysiology.

The *psychological theory of activity*, the principles of which were considered earlier, has adopted its premises for the development of intensive teaching from *general psychology*. The central factors affecting language teaching and learning derive from this theory. It offers a concept of the nature of language and its functions as part of human activity; a theory of language learning known as *speech activity theory* has also been developed from it.

Socio-psychological factors have in recent years played a considerable part in the development of teaching. Central to the methodology of intensive learning is the system of pedagogical communication, organised in accordance with strict educational and psychological principles. This system determines the ways in which pedagogical influencing is applied and learning guided. This interactional system, known as *pedagogical communication*, received its stimulus from *communication psychology*. According to many researchers, a significant part of the problems in teaching stem from the personality and poor communication skills of the teacher. These also indirectly affect contacts and relationships between learners. For the teacher to be able to control and regulate the interactions between people she must know the *psychological theory of the collective*, on the basis of which she can consciously stimulate group processes and encourage factors influencing the evolution of a collective.

Rather less attention has been paid, in this chapter, to the *psychophysiological* factors in intensive teaching. This is partly because they have already been dealt with in connection with suggestopaedy (pages 7-12) and no fresh aspects have emerged in connection with the development of intensive teaching. The reason is also, partly, because the results produced by neurological research have been, to some extent, conflicting, and it is difficult, on that basis, to present a conclusive view of their importance to learning. As to psycho-

physiological factors, it can be stated that the central ideas adopted from Lozanov's theory are the *exploitation of the subconscious* and the *holistic principle* in teaching. These are generally accepted, and also in the Soviet Union, as premises for the development of intensive teaching.

Intensive teaching has thus developed from a very diverse theoretical basis. Though it forms a uniform system methodologically, it is also possible, according to Soviet researchers, to apply its individual principles separately to forms of teaching in which it is difficult to put the whole system into effect (e.g. in the school system). Even the partial application of the system, however, requires a thorough knowledge of its methods.

IV INTENSIVE TEACHING METHODS

Intensive teaching of foreign languages became established in the Soviet Union in the early 1980s, when intensive courses had become an established element in the teaching programmes of many institutions of higher education, and materials designed for intensive teaching were first published on a large scale (e.g. Gegechkori 1976; Kirsh et al. 1981; Kitaigorodskaya 1980; Rozhkova & Pirogova 1981). Previously, throughout the 1970s, experimental and development work was carried out in many establishments. The main centres for research in intensive teaching are in Moscow, Leningrad, Tbilisi, and Minsk. In 1975, the Soviet Academy of Pedagogic Science established a special council to co-ordinate development work in different parts of the country, while in recent years plans for concentrating intensive teaching research on some existing research establishment have been repeatedly put forward.

Although suggestopaedy has been applied to language teaching in schools in both Bulgaria and the Soviet Union, it is primarily used in the field of *adult education*. Owing to its flexible organisation, and considering the special features of adult students, this field is perhaps the one best suited to the nature of the method. Also, it is the intensive methods developed for adult language teaching which are best known in the Soviet Union. An examination of the main features of some forms of intensive teaching follows. The best-known variety - that developed under the direction of G. A. Kitaigorodskaya - will be introduced in more detail in the next chapter.

1. Forms of intensive teaching

One of the earliest and best-known of the Soviet intensive teaching methods is I. J. Shekhter's *affective-meaningful method* (*emocional'no-smyslovoj metod*), which has been applied

since the 1970s, especially to the teaching of foreign languages to specialists in various fields. According to Shekhter, the basic problem of language teaching is that the teaching process remains distanced from, and so never becomes an organic part of the personality of the student (Shekhter 1977). In his opinion, foreign language learning cannot develop without personally meaningful experiences on the part of the student. Human speech always involves meaning, motive, and emotion, all of which occupy a key position in language learning.

The emphasis on meaning, or meaningfulness, is apparent from the name of the method. Shekhter presupposes that the individual cannot derive the meaning of an utterance directly from the sum of the meaning of its linguistic components. Since the purpose of communication is the exchange of semantic content rather than form, the most important means whereby command of oral communication can be achieved is the ability to formulate this semantic content. In foreign language teaching this is best practised with the help of role-playing. Communicative tasks that the student can, consciously or unconsciously, link with his own characteristic motives for activity are of particular importance.

Three phases can be distinguished in Shekhter's method (Kitaigorodskaya 1982, 14). During the first phase, *oral skills* are developed in situations taken from everyday activities and settings. Grammar and homework are entirely absent from this phase, at the end of which students are able to read texts of 1200-1400 words. In the second phase, the purpose is to move on to *factual communication*. Practice of monologues is central to this phase, which also involves learning the basics of translation, preparing reports and summaries, and studying grammar. Classwork mainly takes the form of role-playing different problem-solving situations; these tasks incorporate a general scientific and socio-political vocabulary. The third phase concentrates on language for *specific purposes*. The learning materials are authentic texts, and various letters and documents directly related to the professional activities of the students. The aim of the lan-

guage teaching in this phase is the continued development of oral skills conforming to accepted norms.

The *intensive method* developed by L. S. Gegechkori for adult teaching has also been well-known in the Soviet Union since the 1970s. Gegechkori has been a central influence on research into the development of intensive teaching at Tbilisi. Her thesis on the intensive teaching of French to adults appeared in 1978.

A special feature of Gegechkori's intensive method is the alternation between phases of oral skills and practice in the command of linguistic structures. In the *oral phase*, language teaching mainly follows suggestopaedic methods. This is followed by a *linguistic coaching phase*, the purpose of which is to aid the development of communicative skills by improving the command of structural elements. The principle of conscious, cognitive command is realised in this phase: the language learned mainly intuitively during the oral phase is perceived on a conscious, cognitive level.

Gegechkori's intensive course comprises three oral phases interspersed with two coaching phases. The interspersion of these phases distinguishes this course from other intensive courses developed in the Soviet Union. The materials used in teaching (Gegechkori 1976) have been compiled in accordance with functional-notional principles, with attention also being paid both to features of language structure and to the requirements of communication.

Gegechkori's intensive method is characterised by being systematic and phased. It can be, and has been, applied, varying the phases to language teaching in many teaching institutions. For instance, since 1975 the language department of the Leningrad Forestry Academy has used a teaching programme based on Gegechkori's method, in which the phases are arranged as follows (Kitaigorodskaya 1982, 15):

- Term 1: Practice of skills preceding speech at the level of conscious, cognitive control.
- Term 2: Suggestopaedic phase, with the aim of developing conversational skills.
- Term 3: Reading comprehension practice in the specialty of the university (also at the level of conscious, cognitive language learning).

Term 4: A Lozanovian phase, the main aim of which is to develop the skill of making presentations.

Terms 5 & 6: Reading comprehension for specific purposes, based on games and role-plays using factual materials.

At present, the best-known and most widely used intensive teaching method in the Soviet Union is the *activation method* (*metod aktivizacii rezervnykh vozmožnostej ličnosti*) developed under the guidance of G. A. Kitaigorodskaya, the methodological principles and learning phases of which are described in the next chapter. The development of this method has taken place in close co-operation with the Moscow University laboratory for research into the activation of learning processes, whose director is Academician A. V. Petrovsky. Many well-known scientists and researchers have been involved in the work of the laboratory, and their contribution to the development of intensive teaching and to the formulation of its theoretical basis has been considerable. Research has also been carried out in practical teaching situations; many different kinds of teaching experiments have been carried out in connection with intensive courses arranged for adult learners. Besides research into different aspects of teaching, this developmental work has also resulted in the production of study materials for intensive courses in various languages, e.g. French, German, English, and Spanish (see Kitaigorodskaya 1980, 1981, 1982).

The activation method has spread widely also because the vocational further training faculty of Moscow University arranges three-month further training courses for language teachers, led by Kitaigorodskaya, providing an introduction to intensive teaching methods. The course begins with a three-week series of lectures on the theory and central principles of intensive teaching, combined with independent study of the literature. Following the theoretical introduction, the teachers observe the teaching of intensive courses arranged by the university. Later, they prepare teaching materials themselves and give demonstration lessons, which are evaluated in group sessions. These further training courses have been very popular and the majority of "second generation"

intensive course teachers have received training based on the principles of Kitaigorodskaya's activation method.

The methods introduced above are the best known varieties of intensive teaching in the Soviet Union. The first intensive courses, in the early 1970s, were quite close to Lozanov's suggestopaedic model - the target groups were also similar: adult students were taught mainly basic, practical foreign language skills. Both Gegechkori and Kitaigorodskaya have specialised in the teaching of French and in the preparation of study materials for that language. On the basis of experience gained in teaching French, and largely in accordance with the intensive teaching model adopted for that purpose, Kitaigorodskaya later directed the preparation of materials for the teaching of other languages (e.g. German, English) at a basic level.

With the establishment of intensive teaching and its theoretical premises in the Soviet Union, a development away from suggestopaedy became more clearly discernible, partly because the *target groups* were different and their special features had to be considered. In the mid 1970s, intensive methods were applied, for instance, to language teaching in schools and to both philological and non-philological departments at universities. Post-graduate students and specialists from various professional fields were also involved. Foreign students and students belonging to different Soviet nationalities who are learning Russian as a foreign language also form a central target group for intensive teaching in the Soviet Union.

Intensive courses for foreign post-graduate students of Russian have been arranged, for instance, by the Social Science Academy of the Central Committee of the Soviet Communist Party since 1975, under the direction of I. M. Rozhkova and L. I. Pirogova. Russian language materials have been prepared for these courses with dialogue texts translated into ten different languages. Most of the students of the Social Science Academy come from Socialist countries and they usually have a relatively good passive command of the language. The aim of the intensive course is to activate these skills during the

early phases of post-graduate study, with particular attention being paid to the situations and conditions in which the students will use the language for study or professional purposes. The general theme of the materials is participation in an international conference. The course requires a knowledge of the basic structures and a fairly good passive command of Russian (see Rozhkova & Pirogova 1981).

Intensive courses for foreign students and teachers of Russian are arranged, for example, by the Pushkin Russian Language Institute. The purpose of these courses is, likewise, the activation of the existing passive command of the language (see Akashina 1983). The teachers at the Pushkin Institute (Kirsh et al. 1981) have also prepared basic level intensive Russian courses for foreigners, in which the dialogue texts are translated into English (see Melnikova 1983). Since many foreigners study in the Soviet Union, the so-called "preparatory faculties" of many universities arrange intensive Russian courses for young people in the early stages of their studies.

Soviet researchers and specialists in various fields can also take part in intensive courses in various languages. One may cite, for example, A. S. Plesnevits's ten-day "immersion course" (*kurs pogrūženija*), the purpose of which is to prepare researchers and experts for co-operation in an academic and professional capacity with foreign colleagues in their own fields. The course has also been applied to the teaching of university students in the final phase of language study (Kitaigorodskaya 1982, 16).

Intensive teaching theory and its application are still in the process of development. Individual research and teaching experiments are being carried out in research institutions. Among more recent experiments, V. V. Petrusinsky's "suggesto-cybernetic integral method" may be cited; its basis is the cybernetisation of suggestive control of learner state of mind and perceptions with a view to activating various components of memory (see Kitaigorodskaya 1982, 16). Of all the above-mentioned intensive teaching methods, the one which forms the most uniform whole is the activation method of

Kitaigorodskaya. The theoretical premises of this method are also the most lucidly presented in the literature (see Kitaigorodskaya 1981a, b; 1982). It can be considered the basic method of Soviet intensive teaching, and one which embodies the premises and theoretical principles in the direction of which Soviet intensive teaching has been developing.

2. Intensive teaching as a methodological system

Intensive teaching can be described as foreign language teaching which (1) has as its primary goal the development of *oral linguistic skills* and the *understanding of speech* (communication in the foreign language), (2) utilises those *psychological resources* of the personality which conventional teaching ignores, and which (3) is usually carried out in an intensive fashion (4-6 hours daily) over short periods (ranging from two weeks to a few months).

Though intensive teaching has, in practice, established its position as a special form of language teaching, some uncertainty remains as to what is genuine intensive teaching and what is merely a matter of more efficient teaching and learning. This is due to the fact that, the principles of intensive teaching having become generally known, some "compromise methodologies" have appeared whose aim is to make teaching generally more effective within the framework of traditional methods. Some specific methodologies have also been developed which only partly apply the principles of intensive teaching (e.g. suggestive-cybernetic teaching).

It is, therefore, important to know the criteria by which the intensive teaching concept can be precisely and unambiguously defined (see Leontiev & Kitaigorodskaya 1983, 59). Traditionally, the target group has been considered one criterion of intensive teaching; thus, intensive methods are regarded as best suited to teaching adults the basics of a foreign language. This is not, however, the central criterion of intensive teaching, since these methods have been applied to many different types and levels of groups (school children,

university students, and working professionals). Another often quoted criterion concerns the timing of teaching: intensive teaching is identified with "crash course" teaching (kratkosročnoe obučenie). However, although intensive courses are generally organised in a concentrated fashion, not all crash courses can be called intensive. Both the above criteria are rather superficial and fail to define the distinctive features which characterise intensive teaching as a methodological system.

Leontiev and Kitaigorodskaya (1983, 58) make a distinction between methodology and concrete teaching methods. In a *methodological system* they include objectives, methods, and the psychological and didactic principles of teaching. In this sense, intensive teaching can be defined as a methodological system which has its own unified body of aims, contents, and principles, which are put into practice through a variety of concrete methods. This emphasis on the distinction between methodological system and concrete method stems from the fact that the same means can be used for different ends; for instance, the discrete means of intensive teaching can also be applied to traditional teaching, but this does not justify calling such teaching "intensive".

The *aim* of intensive teaching is, quite simply, to learn as much as possible in the shortest possible time. Equal command of all linguistic sub-skills is not, however, considered a realistic goal; instead, teaching centres on the development of oral communication skills (speaking and understanding), but at the same time tries to further the development of other sub-skills.

The *contents* of intensive teaching form an organic whole, combining teaching and educational aspects. In the preparation and organisation of the contents of teaching, the aim is to provide the learner with the necessary facilities and skills for acting and communicating in a given subject area or situation. The aim is also to provide sufficient command of the language to ensure the further development and use of those facilities and skills. Intensive teaching emphasises the communicative approach, but, at the same time, endeavours

to take into account the cognitive aspect. The educational function of teaching is realised through the collective activity of the group.

The *principles* of intensive teaching can be derived from the theoretical premises presented earlier. They are founded on the psychological theory of activity (L. S. Vygotsky; A. N. Leontiev), speech activity theory and the psychology of communication (A. A. Leontiev), as well as on the theory of the psychology of the collective (A. V. Petrovsky) and on the use of the potential reserves of the personality (G. Lozanov). These principles will be examined more closely in the following section.

2.1. The principles of intensive teaching

Kitaigorodskaya (1981, 6-14) divides the governing principles of intensive teaching into the *psychological and pedagogical principles* and the *psychological and methodological principles* of teaching, of which the former provide the general strategy of intensive teaching, while the latter can be considered as the tactics derived from that strategy. The most important pedagogical principle is considered to be the organisation of teaching through collective activity. The methodological principles are classified in various ways in the literature; the classification introduced by Kitaigorodskaya (1981, 6-14) will be used here.

2.1.1. The nature of collective activity

According to the *collective principle*, learning is optimal in a group or collective which operates as a mobilising force for each member's personal reserves, and through which these reserves can be put to effective use. The system of collective activity requires conscious and purposeful control of the group's interactive processes and communication. In intensive teaching, organisation is the teacher's most important func-

tion; creativeness and the use of personal reserves are required in order that educational and instructional objectives may be attained. In other words, the organisation of group teaching requires *pedagogic communication skills*.

Intensive teaching requires small groups. The optimal size of an adult group is considered to be twelve, with both sexes represented. Traditionally, learning is thought to be more effective the smaller the group. Research into the influence of group size on learning results in intensive teaching has shown, however, that in groups of under five people the individual group member receives insufficient stimuli for learning. In addition, the processes which turn the group into a collective do not occur in such small groups. The *process of collective formation* (see p. 49) is a central pedagogical factor in intensive teaching as regards both teaching and educational functions.

The definition of optimal group size has also been influenced by practical considerations: a twelve-person group can easily be divided into smaller groups (pairs, small groups, two "teams") to form the basis for teaching. Collective forms of work, in which the active participation of every group member in joint activities is of considerable importance, is a characteristic feature of intensive teaching. Involvement is guaranteed through the group's internal divisions of work; each group member has his own task in the joint activity.

In connection with intensive teaching, a theory of collective learning has recently been put forward (Kitaigorodskaya 1981a; Leontiev 1981a), according to which the group is regarded as a *collective subject*. Each group member "selects" something from the teaching according to his own personality and characteristics; acting within the group, he transmits what he has learned to the other group members. In this way, "collective learning" occurs; group members teach each other. Putting this principle into practice requires versatile teaching materials and an abundance of different teaching situations to ensure each group member self-expression through them.

In intensive teaching, collective work forms actually involve making the teaching-learning process analogous with working activity (cf activity theory). Activity is of central importance in language acquisition. Language learning is impossible without systematisation of language input, nor is it achieved exclusively on a verbal level by explaining and describing the language as a system. It must also be possible from the beginning to use the language as a communicative tool; collective work forms provide excellent opportunities for this.

The principle of the collective has been a basic premise for the development of Soviet intensive teaching. Many researchers who voiced criticisms about the principles of Lozanov's suggestopaedic method have acknowledged that its organisation of teaching is pedagogically very successful, specifically because it makes possible the extensive use of collective work forms. Considerable attention is still paid to the development of the organisation of teaching, and experimental and research activity in this field is still being carried out in several teaching and research institutions with the aim of increasing the efficiency of teaching and learning.

2.1.2. The two levels of the teaching process

The most central principle of intensive teaching adopted from Lozanov is that of the *two levels of the teaching process* (dvuplanovost'). To Lozanov, this principle meant, above all, resorting to both conscious and unconscious, or involuntary, language learning by exploiting emotional and other interactive processes. In a teaching situation, this dual-level principle is realised through the way in which new study material is presented (see p. 90), and through its practice (see p. 94), e.g. in the form of play and games, which have central importance also in sustaining motivation. Unmotivated, purposeless communication is not used in intensive teaching; the communicative situation always has an aim or purpose to be achieved.

According to Kitaigorodskaya, the dual-level principle can be examined from a number of viewpoints. Psychologically and methodologically it expresses one of the central ideas of intensive teaching - the use of *indirect objectives* (*kosvennoe celopolaganie*) in teaching. This means that the learner is not constantly aware of the actual objective (learning a foreign language), but of reaching indirect communicative objectives (performance of a specific speech act in a specific situation). In intensive teaching, communication is not only the final objective, but also a means of teaching.

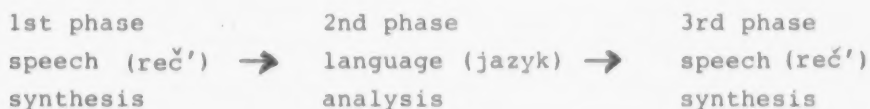
In the teaching situation, communication should be structured in such a way that, initially, the learner is above all aware of the communicative goal of a task; his choice of the linguistic means by which to achieve this goal will largely be made unconsciously. Thus, certain linguistic means are internalised only in relation to certain situations; in other words, awareness of their communicative value is generated without conscious linguistic analysis. Generalisation and the deductive systematisation of linguistic phenomena occur only later. This is the true objective towards which the teacher gradually directs the group and of which she must always be conscious. Thus, the teacher has her own aims: as well as developing communicative skills she must provide for the systematisation of linguistic matter and the practice and automatisisation of speech operations. All this should be achieved in communicative situations meaningful to the learner. Realisation of this system of direct and indirect objectives requires careful lesson preparation and teaching materials specially developed for the purpose (cf. principles of teaching materials, preparation and activation of such materials).

2.1.3. The global approach

The term *global approach* (*global'nyj podhod*) generally signifies that all possible means and channels by which the psyche of the student may be influenced are exploited in teaching. The teacher tries to produce an emotional atmos-

phere which will favourably influence the learning process: a relaxed state of mind, a pleasant learning environment, and the use of music, games, and other creative components in teaching stimulate the learner emotionally and such activity in turn aids the process of acquisition and learning. A favourable atmosphere and emotionally stimulating activity are also very important from the educational point of view.

Kitaigorodskaya has also applied the global approach as a methodological principle in the *choice of teaching content and organisation*. In the first phase of intensive teaching, large chunks of spoken language are dealt with. This is followed by a phase of language system analysis, and finally a return is made to the large entities in the phase of synthesis. Thus, three phases of teaching can be distinguished theoretically:



This division is purely theoretical in the sense that in an intensive course three different phases with differing teaching aims cannot necessarily be clearly distinguished. It is, perhaps, more accurate to say that these phases are realised simultaneously; in other words, while part of the linguistic material is being introduced as new (first phase), another part may simultaneously be undergoing analysis (second phase). Thus, as the course advances, the amount of material entering the third (synthetic) phase is steadily increasing.

The *first synthetic phase* operates entirely on a spoken language level, without any attempt at analysing linguistic features. The length of this phase depends on the level of the group: in a beginners' course it will generally take up between a quarter and a third of the whole length of the course (on average, 5-7 days). This time is spent going through the so-called *communicative core* (*kommunikativnoe jadro*) of the course - the most essential part of the learning material - the acquisition of which forms the ultimate objective (in a beginners' course, 1000-1500 lexical units). More advanced

groups move on to the analytical phase more quickly and the different phases start to overlap.

Teaching experiments have shown that, with a gifted teacher, the group already experiences an "illusion" of knowing the language in the first synthetic phase. However, intensive teaching does not recognise the existence of a shortcut to foreign language learning, thereby completely obviating the conscious internalisation process. While suggestopaedy emphasises the easiness of learning, or the creation of an impression of such easiness, Soviet intensive methods require learning as a conscious and purposeful activity, during which adult students in particular develop a need to analyse and systematise what they have learnt. This view is also supported by practical experience: in the first phase of an intensive course, the amount of learning material offered is many times greater than in ordinary teaching and it "forces" the adult student to analyse this unorganised mass of data. The teacher's task is to decide when the group is ready to make an analysis of what it has learnt, thus avoiding the "forced feeding" of grammar. When the learner himself experiences analysis and systematisation of the language as meaningful and appropriate, he is also motivated to embark on it.

In the *analytical phase* concentration centres largely on the language itself, its structures and characteristics; the objects of conscious analysis are expressly the elements most central in terms of communicativeness. This, however, does not mean resorting to traditional grammar teaching methods; instead, analysis is based on a command of language which has already been automatised to a certain extent as a result of practice in the first phase. The linguistic material is examined on a conscious level with the aim of involving the learner in active analysis of the language; in other words, the objective is inductive reasoning. Another fundamental difference between traditional grammar and intensive teaching instruction is that every effort is made to preserve and sustain motivation also in the analytical phase.

The solution to the problem of sustaining motivation is embodied in the dual-level principle outlined earlier. Set-

ting indirect objectives for students entails creating language use situations that are both communicative and motivating. These also encompass the teacher's direct objective, for instance, practising a certain grammatical structure. The phase of linguistic analysis thus operates simultaneously on two different levels: the learner may also be aware of the teacher's objective, but most important to him personally is the performance of a motivating task in a communicative situation.

As has been stated above, the analytical phase operates simultaneously on several different levels, also in the sense that while one part of the linguistic material is still in the first synthetic phase, another has become the subject of analysis, and a third has already moved on into the second synthetic phase. The whole learning process thus proceeds spirally from one level to another. Genuine creative speech is produced only after the analytical phase, as it is precisely the analytical examination of the communicative core of the learning materials that provides a foundation for the learner's own creative language production. The *second synthetic phase* presupposes mastery of the communicative core, because this enables the student to combine what he has learnt in new ways and apply it creatively to new situations.

This kind of approach can be described as deductive-inductive-deductive (Kitaigorodskaya 1981a, 91). The purpose of the comprehensive range of linguistic materials is to give the student an opportunity for analytical activity from the very beginning of his studies, i.e. a chance to search for or deduce connections and rules. Only after this can analytical operations be transferred to new material and creative language use become possible in a variety of communicative situations. This approach provides, in principle, the possibility of a new orientation in language teaching. It is close to Galperin's third type of orientation (see pages 28-30), in which the orientation is characterised as general (general principles of a whole category of events), complete (containing all essential features), and independently produced, or at least achieved through active participation.

2.1.4. Linking the conscious and the subconscious

As stated earlier (page 37), the principle of consciousness is traditionally a cornerstone of Soviet language teaching methodology. The development of intensive teaching methods has led to a fresh evaluation of this central concept (see Smirnova 1981) and to a more profound interpretation of it. The *principle of linking the conscious and the subconscious* (*princip oodĕtanija soznavaemogo i nesoznavaemogo*) in intensive teaching is based on the premises of the psychological theory of activity and the speech activity theory. Speech activity is considered a purposeful and motivated activity, the development of which can also be followed on an operational level.

The premises for the development of speech activity are not those features of language which are the objects of learning, but the needs and motives which act as an impetus for certain speech acts. It is speech acts that create the system of operations. In the teaching process, not all operations are conscious simultaneously; at any given time, some are still unconscious, others are just then objects of awareness, and still others have already been consciously processed and become stereotypes (automatic). Oral communication is also a phased learning process. Meaning, or content, is the central element of communication, and within this framework the learner uses various speech operations to solve communicative tasks.

The linking of conscious and subconscious activity is closely related to the dual-level and the globality principles. In the first synthetic phase of teaching, the communicative core material is practised by developing speech habits and uniting them into speech acts. It is only in the second, analytical phase of teaching that some of these operations are made the objects of conscious analysis. With the automatization of speech habits, the range of material over which the learner has conscious command increases. Thus, the analysis of linguistic elements occurs, not in an abstract system, but as a synthesis based on elements of content. In the third, synthetic phase proper, the student has already achieved,

through conscious awareness, a creative command of the language - the level of possessing communicative skills. The efficiency of oral communication is optimal when the speaker is aware only of the content to be communicated, while the structural and lexical elements used to express this content need not be consciously recalled.

Because the conscious and subconscious levels are combined and realised in communication, it is necessary that speech habits and oral skills should also be organically combined in the teaching process. Exercises aimed at the development of speech habits and oral skills should be goal-oriented and motivated, as otherwise the learner will have to operate in so-called pseudo-communicative situations. The teacher must carefully consider and plan in advance the timing and selection of operations to be consciously processed, as well as the optimal manner of combining them into speech acts to complement the system of existing speech operations.

2.1.5. Individual teaching through the group

Although considerable emphasis has been placed, in the foregoing, on the principle of collective activity as the form of organisational activity dominating intensive teaching, an essential methodological principle is the use of *individual teaching* achieved through the medium of the group (*princip individual'nogo obučeniya čerez gruppovoe*). The most central task of the teacher in intensive teaching is to organise and direct the teaching process. She mainly influences indirectly the learning results of individual group members: the relationship between teacher and learner is only one form of interactive relationship influencing the teaching situation; great importance is also attached to the inter-relationships occurring within the student collective. In the traditional model of teaching, the learner receives feedback mainly from the teacher alone, but in intensive teaching, every member "tests" himself continually in the group and thus receives notably more feedback than in conventional teaching.

The successful outcome of teaching depends heavily on the cohesiveness of the group. By "cohesiveness" is meant the uniformity of the group's value orientation, which emerges as a uniformity of opinions, expectations concerning the teacher, and conceptions of the characteristic features of teaching. A cohesive group (well-developed collective), in which a favourable emotional atmosphere prevails, is effective from the point of view of group-member activity and learning: close interaction ensures the successful outcome of teaching.

All the intensive teaching principles introduced above form a unified whole and are closely interrelated and constitute the foundation of intensive teaching methods. They have been formulated on the basis of Soviet research traditions as a result of long and extensive developmental work. They cannot be considered either final or complete, as work on methodological developments and research into intensive teaching are still an ongoing concern. These principles, however, give the teacher some kind of starting point for the development of her own teaching. Each individual teacher who applies intensive teaching methods to a concrete teaching situation naturally uses those methodological means and solutions which suit her personality best. The teacher's procedures, however, should never conflict with the basic principles stated above - otherwise it is not possible to speak of intensive teaching.

2.2. The principles of learning material preparation

Intensive teaching requires special learning materials, specifically prepared for the purpose. It has been shown in many teaching experiments that learning materials always limit and direct the tasks and activities used in teaching, at least to some extent. The more fully the central principles of intensive teaching have been taken into account in the materials, the easier it becomes to transfer them to the teaching process. For this reason, particular attention must be paid to the preparation of materials.

The learning materials used in intensive teaching courses differ from those of ordinary foreign language teaching in terms both of the choice of content and of organisation. According to Kitaigorodskaya (1982), a vocabulary of about 1,800 items provides an adequate basis for general conversation and the understanding of speech. Since learning materials are generally not fully acquired by the learner (on average, 70-80% of the material is retained), the vocabulary selected for a beginners' course comprises some 2,500 items, of which approximately 1,500 form the communicative core material. Acquisition of this material should be within the scope of all learners on an intensive course.

In the *preparation of vocabulary* the main principle of selection is the frequency of words and expressions, but there are also others. One important factor to consider is the word's "existence" in the speaker's consciousness, which need not necessarily conform with its frequency, but is to a fairly large extent a feature of personality. The course should also include words which make individual self-expression possible in various everyday situations. Memorisation and retention of these words anchor on their interest, and the empathy and involvement they engender in situations of use. The third principle of vocabulary selection is productivity, or word formation value: to what extent do the words selected generate new words? A high degree of communicativeness and informativeness is achieved by the addition to the vocabulary of a generous number of adjectives and expressions of modality and evaluation.

Intensive courses generally cover some 80-120 study periods. Kitaigorodskaya's beginners' courses cover 120 periods, with the course being divided into 10 themes (units). On average, 150-200 new words and expressions are presented in each theme. The course is compiled in such a way that the first three themes (first synthetic phase, see p. 76) contain almost 900 words and expressions; a relatively large amount of material is thus presented at the very beginning of the course. The greater part of this material belongs to the communicative core. This distribution is justified by the fact that motiva-

tion is high during the first days of the course and that consequently it is relatively easy to learn a large body of linguistic material at this point. In the first phase the material is dealt with exclusively at the oral level. In the analytic phase (2nd phase), the amount of new vocabulary is reduced, while in the final synthetic phase (3rd phase), a large quantity of new material is again presented. In this way the principle of globality in intensive teaching can already be taken into account at the materials production stage.

Nowadays, intensive teaching materials are provided with separate teacher's and students' books as a matter of course. In addition, there are a number of extra and illustrative materials, appended to the teacher's guide, where possible, as separate supplements (tapes, slides, videotapes, etc.).

2.2.1. The teacher's guide

The general principles of intensive teaching which have served as a basis for the preparation of the course are usually presented in the *teacher's guide*, which may include *methodological recommendations* concerning the organisation of the teaching process, its various phases, and the special features of the course. Since intensive teaching is a relatively new form of instruction and teachers do not necessarily have much experience in the use of intensive methods, the teacher's guide may also supply detailed lesson plans and teaching programmes (Kirsh et al. 1981; Kitaigorodskaya 1979; Rozhkova & Pirogova 1981). Appendix 5 introduces the activation plan for one theme in an intensive course in Russian (Laihiala-Kankainen & Surmonina 1985).

Intensive teaching requires many supplementary materials and "props", the preparation of which involves the teacher in considerable additional work. For this reason, the teacher's guide usually includes at least a few models and examples of possible supplementary materials and suggests ideas for arranging various games and play activities in the lessons. When audio or video tapes are included in intensive courses,

transcripts and recommendations for use are also included in the teacher's guide.

Great stress is laid on the creative character of the teacher's work in intensive teaching and on the need to take into account and exploit her personality in the teaching process.

The teacher's guide should not, therefore, direct the teacher's work too strictly or in too great detail; it should, rather, offer ideas and stimuli. On the other hand, matters concerning the general nature and principles of intensive teaching should be given considerable weight; for instance, the organisation of teaching and the aims and significance of its various phases should be clarified, since these are central factors from the point of view of planning teaching.

2.2.2. The students' book

The most central material in intensive teaching is the students' book, which normally contains 8-10 relatively long *scripted dialogues*. These are often supplemented by additional material, such as lexical and grammatical explanations, texts for independent reading, and possibly also homework (see Appendix 4).

The learning material is generally organised around some central topic, so that the different themes (units) form an integrated whole and the persons introduced in the scripted dialogues are present in all, or nearly all, themes. Many beginners' courses take as their theme the journey of a group of tourists to the country in which the language being studied is spoken (e.g. Kitaigorodskaya 1980; Kirsh et al. 1981). Depending on the target group, the topic can be more specific than this: for instance, the participation of researchers and scientists in an international congress (e.g. Rozhkova & Pirogova 1980), or the material may be based, for instance, on the situations in which a Finnish traveller may find himself when visiting the Soviet Union in the context of bilateral scientific and cultural co-operation (Laihiala-Kankainen & Surmonina 1985).

A special feature of the learning materials used on intensive courses is the *system of roles* which is built into the teaching programme. Teaching is designed for a group of twelve persons, who are each assigned a role in the scripted dialogues. The content evolves around, for instance, the journey of a group of tourists to a foreign country; the students "play the parts" of the tourists while the teacher takes the role of courier. Through this kind of role play, students can, as it were, "take part" in all the situations described in their study book. Each group member is assigned a role, a new identity, which he will use throughout the intensive course (see Appendix 3).

The assignment of roles has both a psychological and a methodological significance. Psychologically, the role is a kind of "mask", which makes communication easier, especially at the beginning of the course. The use of roles has been shown to reduce the general fear of making mistakes and to help the learner overcome his limitations. It also stimulates creative activity and the imagination, because the learner gains opportunities through it for individual activity and for developing his role. Within the broad framework of his given character he can choose a behavioural model for himself and create a relationship with the other members of the group.

The role system also acts as a methodological instrument. Through it interaction between group members can be regulated and application of collective work forms can be realised. To begin with, communication takes place within the framework of the scripted dialogues, which provide the group with a certain model for activities. The role system makes the acquisition of material easier; teaching experiments have shown that each learner tends to memorise especially the situations and linguistic models which relate to his own role in the scripted dialogues. Working in the group, he "donates" the material he has learned for the use of other group members. Through repetition in various kinds of pair- and group-work these models and forms become the property of the group as a whole; in other words, the principle of collective learning is realised in practice (see p. 73).

The use of roles is particularly important in the initial phases of the course. Each group member has his own basic role, but, in addition to this, temporary roles are also assigned as required during the lessons. In later phases the role has been observed to fade into the background and the learner's own individuality and opinions become steadily more apparent in communication. The psychological "protection" afforded by the role is no longer so necessary, and thus the learner is able to act and communicate as his own natural self. In the preparation of learning materials and the creation of roles, particular attention must be paid to the emotional aspect of the teaching/learning process, and consideration must be given to the kind of atmosphere created by the scripted dialogues acting as a basis for role play and communication. In intensive teaching much emphasis is placed on the importance of bringing out positive characteristics and on the value of humour and a free, happy atmosphere. All these factors must be considered during the preparation of materials; they are important also for the realisation of educational aspects of teaching.

The central part of the students' book is the *scripted dialogue* (unit), which forms an entity within the general topic area. Each dialogue involves at least 150 lexical items and certain grammatical constructions, which are integrated into the situations. Since the main aim of teaching is oral communication, it is important to produce *motives for communication*; in other words, situations which stimulate speech acts while specifying certain conditions for their content and linguistic form. From the point of view of developing communicative skills, the most important situations are those which give the learner a chance to use his creative talents, to mobilise his attentiveness, and to improve his memory through emotional involvement.

According to Kitaigorodskaya (1982, 43-44), every situation should include a *communicative task*, whose solution presupposes

- the ability to orientate oneself quickly and correctly to the circumstances of communication;

- the ability to plan one's own speech correctly (express the content of the communicative act);
- the ability to find the correct means (forms) by which to transmit this content;
- the ability to receive feedback.

These factors must be taken into account at the stage of materials preparation so that lexical, grammatical and phonetic material can be practised in genuine communicative situations. In the preparation of study materials for intensive teaching it is usual to first carry out some mapping and analysis of *themes* and *situations*, and then select the linguistic constituents of the learning materials on that basis (see Appendix 1). The scripted dialogues should be dynamic and varied, but at the same time as natural as possible.

Intensive teaching presents the scripted dialogues in a fashion borrowed from suggestopaedy, in which the foreign language text is printed on the left side of the page, with a translation provided on the right (see Appendix 4). The purpose of the translation is to give meaning equivalents - intensive courses usually do not have separate vocabularies. The native language translation is not a literary one; it is meant for teaching use and its purpose is to interpret and clarify the structures and forms of the target (foreign) language. The translation attempts to give the exact meanings of expressions so that the use of a dictionary can be avoided.

In most intensive courses the scripted dialogue is followed by *explanations of grammar and vocabulary*, intended to provide a grasp of structural entities and aid generalisation of grammatical features (see Appendix 4). These explanations form a basis for vocabulary extension and also provide information about cultural details. Soviet intensive teaching regards grammar in a somewhat different light than suggestopaedy; it does not consider it possible to learn a foreign language without consciously analysing structural features at some point during teaching. In intensive teaching, structural and lexical explanations become the objects of conscious attention only at a stage when they have already become familiar and have been gone over many times orally during the lessons.

Structural analysis is included, first and foremost, to aid generalisation. From examples in the scripted dialogues, students attempt to deduce general rules or find certain regularities. For adult learners in particular, the conscious analysis and acquisition of structures is a characteristic learning strategy.

Another departure from suggestopaedy in some intensive courses is the giving of *homework*, which is seen as providing the learner with a means of monitoring his own progress. Tasks may be either oral or written and joint or individual. Not all intensive courses, however, include homework as such, but they generally recommend only a cursory reading of the scripted dialogues and the relevant comments. When audio material is included in a course, listening is considered to be important, since the act of listening to speech in the foreign language is seen as improving speech production as well as understanding.

Some intensive courses require a separate *reader* (e.g. Rozhkova & Pirogova 1980), or a set of reading tasks (Kitai-gorodskaya 1981), mainly comprising texts in the form of monologues. To begin with, these texts are composed around the lexical and structural content of the themes; later, authentic materials may also be included. These tasks are intended to develop skills appropriate for reading comprehension and also the delivery of extended speech.

Although oral communication is emphasised particularly during lessons, the development of the other linguistic sub-skills is already considered when preparing intensive learning materials. On the one hand, homework in particular often aims at exercising reading and writing skills and, on the other hand, the activation phase in classroom teaching also contains tasks which develop these skills.

The learning materials used on intensive courses also differ from ordinary course books in their outward appearance. The students' book is composed of different parts (units), each of which contains the material for one theme. The learning material is not given to the student in advance; instead, each theme is distributed in the presentation phase (see

phases of teaching). The "charm of novelty" is thus preserved along with the element of surprise which the manner of presenting new material presupposes. A complete theme, on the subject of getting to know people, is presented in Appendix 4.

3. The progression of the teaching process

Intensive teaching differs from ordinary teaching as regards forms of activity, too. The course begins with an *information phase*, occupying a double lesson, during which the teacher explains the aims and principles of the teaching. Group members are given new identities here, the characters which they will assume for the duration of the course; the participants' real names are never used in intensive teaching. Other biographical data, such as profession, family relationships, etc., are discussed only if the student himself introduces them into conversation. He can create his role quite freely, combining true as well as imagined components at will.

When the teacher has introduced the characters appearing in the scripted dialogues, she may well then *assign roles*. Participants can choose roles for themselves then, or the teacher may allocate them as she sees fit. Where *initial testing* has been arranged prior to the course, the teacher will already have some idea of the level of the group and of the individual characteristics of the participants. The purpose of the testing is to set up, as far as possible, a group that is fairly homogeneous, as far as linguistic abilities are concerned, since this kind of group is easier to teach and organise than a more heterogeneous one. In practice, however, it is not always possible to arrange such testing; instead, those wishing to take part may often have to be accepted in their order of enrolment. In such cases, the teacher will have to take into account differences in learners' skill levels when allocating roles.

The actual teaching is divided into two parts: the introduction of new material, and practice in various motivational

and communicative language use situations. New material is always introduced at the end of the day, during the last double period, and it is normally practised for 6-8 periods. If there is teaching for four periods a day, activation exercises generally cover six periods (the entire day following the introduction of new material and the first double period of the next day). After this, a new theme is introduced. The schedule of an intensive course thus involves the introduction of new material every other day (see Appendix 2). The different phases of teaching differ considerably from traditional language teaching.

3.1. The introduction of new learning material

The introduction, or *presentation* of new material, involves the same phases as in suggestopaedy, but the aims and contents differ somewhat from those introduced by Lozanov. New material is usually introduced 3-4 times in different ways. Each form of presentation has its own special features, and its own functions and targets. The presentation of new material always occurs in the same way, observing the same phases. Consequently, the process has a character suggestive of ritual, which thus arouses the learner's expectations, and makes him attentive and receptive towards new data.

3.1.1. Introductory reading

The first presentation is an introduction to the new theme, with the aim of familiarising the student with the subject matter. At the beginning of the course the teacher will devote a relatively large amount of time to this introduction, as everything is new; the group has no previous experience of the learning material to fall back on. Later in the course, the first presentation may be reduced to no more than 3-5 minutes. Here, the teacher describes freely, in her own words, something of the content of the scripted dialogue, perhaps

also referring back to some earlier events and situations which form a background to the coming activity. The purpose of this first presentation is to arouse conscious interest in the new material, so it is, therefore, advisable for the teacher to leave some "element of surprise" until the later phases of the introduction, so that the group's interest can be maintained throughout the presentation.

On beginners' courses the first presentation can be difficult for the teacher, especially in the first lessons, when the students do not yet understand the language, though communication should be maintained orally in the foreign tongue. For this reason, the teacher should make as much use as possible of facial expressions and gestures, but may also resort to the native language when the message cannot otherwise be conveyed. Translations, however, should be avoided. The teacher can give certain hints; she can dramatise and, using her judgment, translate into the native language, as it were in passing and often in a whisper. The main emphasis in communication is always on the foreign language. In the later stages of the course, when the students have increased their linguistic ability and are familiar with the learning materials, the narrative introduction becomes easier to perform. The teacher must, however, consider in advance carefully what to tell of the content of the theme and how best to arouse the interest of the group while still preserving the "excitement" and novelty of the situation. At this stage the students have not yet seen the scripted dialogues, so everything they are told by the teacher is entirely new to them.

3.1.2. Interpretative reading

The second presentation is often called the *explanatory* or *interpretative reading*. Its main objective is the involuntary (subconscious) memorisation and recall of learning material. This presentation concentrates on linguistic material and on the interpretation and explanation of the core communicative elements, and it requires the teacher to "act out" and con-

vincingly dramatise the situations introduced in the dialogues. The teacher's purpose here is to activate and mobilise emotional involvement within the group, since this aids the acquisition of the material. Various techniques can be employed in order to achieve this aim, for instance, repetition of dialogue lines in chorus, answering questions, etc. When introducing the material, various tones of voice as well as rhythms and tempi can be used; answers can be elicited sometimes from the whole group and sometimes from individuals, etc.

Not all the material is gone through in this presentation phase, but only the components that are linguistically the most central. The teacher must prepare the presentation carefully in advance. She must select from the materials those core components - meaningful entities containing some central grammatical, lexical, phonetic, or communicative content - which will later be the subjects of activation and on which communication will be based. These core components may vary, depending on the particular characteristics of the group concerned. In many intensive courses the core components have already been considered when preparing the materials (cf. Appendix 1).

The teacher should consider how involuntary data and memorisation and recall can be assured when choosing the means by which to emphasise certain parts of the material. Every teacher has her own "bag of tricks", her own style, and her own strong points, which she can exploit in this work. The use of non-verbal communication has been shown to provide a valuable support for the subconscious acquisition and recall of data. Often, also, emotionally coloured utterances expressing praise are remembered well and are easily associated with a certain gesture or facial expression. Later, this gesture or facial expression acts as a stimulus or signal for the recall.

In the second phase of presentation, brief explanations of linguistic, etymological, or cultural aspects can also be given if they are considered to be of interest to the students. Such explanations help to maintain interest and attentiveness and, especially in the case of adult students, are easily retained in the associative-logical memory.

Research carried out in connection with intensive teaching has shown that acquisition of subject matter occurs mainly in this phase, and is a result of emotional involvement and participation in the teaching, as well as the activation of the articulatory-motor memory, triggered by the method of presentation. Kitaigorodskaya emphasises the fact that the acquisition of a foreign language begins with imitation, not just with listening. Students should thus be induced to take as active a part as possible in this phase of materials presentation.

3.1.3. Intoned reading

It is only in the third phase of the presentation that the students are given the new material and follow the reading in the text. The third presentation can take either of two forms: the teacher either reads the native language sentence first and the foreign language equivalent immediately afterwards, or she reads only the foreign language text, pausing between sentences so that the students can read the parallel native language text for themselves. The aim of this presentation is to analyse and compare the native and foreign language texts while consciously memorising the material being studied. The presentation gives an organised picture of the entire scripted dialogue and helps to connect the auditory form of the words with their visual appearance.

This presentation is often referred to as an *intoned reading*, since the text is generally read using, in turn, three different kinds of intonation: normal, whispering, and authoritative. The reading is intentionally carried out in an artificial manner, since the presentation phase is a means of maintaining attentiveness. It has been shown in teaching experiments to be effective from the point of view of memorisation. Externally, the manner of presentation seems passive and monotonous, but its purpose is to goad the learner into mental activity. The entire scripted dialogue is read through, this phase usually taking some 30-40 minutes.

3.1.4. Concert reading

The fourth presentation is sometimes called the *concert* or *concert reading*, since music plays a central part in it. The students are told to relax and concentrate on the music: the scripted dialogues are set aside. While the music plays, the teacher presents the dialogue once more, in a natural voice, adjusting her reading to the tempo and mood of the music.

The primary purpose of this phase of presentation is relaxation following a long period of teaching. It is always the last teaching phase of the day, and students leave the class feeling rested and relaxed because of it. Classical music, preferably in a tranquil mood, is recommended, since it is employed to encourage a state of rest and relaxation. Many teachers recommend the use of the same piece each time, for in this way relaxation is usually achieved more quickly.

The presentation of new material does not differ externally very much from the suggestopaedic method. In Soviet intensive courses, however, more attention is paid to the conscious acquisition of linguistic material alongside the process of involuntary learning. Use of the native language is also allowed in teaching when it is desirable to ensure the correct understanding of meaning. The different phases of materials presentation are, to some extent, interpreted differently than in suggestopaedy. The second and third stages of presentation, in which the objectives of conscious and involuntary memorisation merge, are considered central to learning.

3.2. The activation of learning material

The activation of learning material can be divided into two phases, or types of task: exercises designed to develop speech *habits*, and exercises which aim at the development of oral *skills* (cf. p. 36). The objective of the first phase is the acquisition of the linguistic skills required in a communicative situation, i.e. the development of speech opera-

tions and their combination into speech acts. According to Galperin's theory (see p. 28), it is a question of converting the external forms of activity into an internal, psychological one. The objective of the second phase, again, is to convert language competence into oral activity, i.e. the creative use of language in communicative situations.

The separation of these phases or tasks is mainly theoretical, as they form an organic whole in the teaching process. Both types of exercise involve communicative language teaching and motivated tasks, which, in fact, differ from each other only in relation to the scope of the tasks involved. Speech habits are exercised in communicative and motivated language use situations consciously and precisely delimited by the teacher. Oral skills, on the other hand, are developed in less strictly defined communicative situations, which include more creative elements, while the situation itself sets certain limits on speech activity. In intensive teaching, learning material activation is usually realised in such a way that both activation phases are employed in connection with each theme (unit). (See Appendices 2 & 5.)

3.2.1. The formation of speech habits

In the *first phase of activation*, the tasks are "pre-creative": communicative skills are practised with the aid of guided tasks or activities. This means that practice centres on one thing at a time; the task has a fixed framework, which ensures that only the material to be learned, and nothing more than this, is practised, so as to avoid having the students wanting to convey something for which they do not yet have the required skills. In this way, frustration can be avoided and the situation can be kept within the teacher's control.

The role of the teacher is central to this phase of activation: she acts as the leader of the collective, as the one who provides models of communication, and as an example. The group works together a great deal, since they are all prac-

tising the same material. Individual tasks are not yet given; the linguistic competence of the students is limited and they are not yet capable of handling a communicative situation without guidance.

The teacher must make very careful preparations for the first phase of activation. According to Kitaigorodskaya (1982, 67-69), she should, for instance take the following measures:

1. Define the central grammatical points and vocabulary to be activated on the basis of the scripted dialogue. In many intensive courses, the central teaching points are itemized in the Teacher's Guide as regards speech models, grammar, and vocabulary (see Appendix 1). The teacher herself, however, must always consider how well they correspond with the particular needs and characteristics of her own target group. Attention should also be paid to material studied in earlier lessons, since parts of it may still require reinforcement.
2. Divide the scripted dialogue into meaningful entities containing central lexis and grammar. The material is usually activated in stages on the basis of the scripted dialogue in such a way that the part of a dialogue which acts as a model for the first activation exercises is first read in chorus. The concrete situation presented in the text normally constitutes the model.
3. Define the tasks and means (role play, problem solving, games, competitions, poems, songs, mime, drawing, etc.) through which individual linguistic features (pronunciation, intonation, idioms, structures, etc.) will be practised and reinforced. The teacher must carefully consider what means are best suited to practising each feature.
4. Select and prepare audio-visual aids and other necessary "props". The Teacher's Guide generally contains models and recommendations concerning these and other kinds of supplementary material (e.g. pictures, paintings, diagrams, slides, videos, and cassettes).

5. Plan the collective and individual work forms to be used in teaching. The employment of different work forms - the "rhythm" of the lesson - is important so as to avoid fatigue and maintain motivation. Varying the forms of activity is not an aim in itself; indeed, the first consideration should always be the appropriateness of different forms of activity. The teacher should prepare a detailed lesson plan in advance, showing the order of different activities.

According to Kitaigorodskaya, the teacher should prepare a "script" for each lesson, giving a detailed plan of the progression of the lesson and her own speech behaviour. Apart from occasional explanations, communication during the lesson is in the foreign language and the teacher should use a normal speaking style and speed from the beginning. In intensive teaching, the need for *natural communication* as opposed to classroom communication is particularly emphasised and its success depends on the teacher's professional skills (e.g. pedagogic communication skills) and on how well she has prepared the lesson. Natural communication is achieved if the teacher can formulate and provide the students with meaningful communicative tasks and if she can display personal interest when communicating with the students.

The first phase of activation creates a foundation for the development of oral skills, but demands a great deal from the teacher. She has to monitor the group constantly and adapt her own behaviour (and her "script") to the situation in the group. The *correction of errors* is particularly important in this phase of speech operations formation. As regards student errors, the following general principles are observed in intensive teaching (Kitaigorodskaya 1982, 74):

1. Errors are normal features of the learning process, and the effectiveness of learning can actually be enhanced through them.
2. Errors should not be corrected in creative oral communication, but only in phases concerned with the formation of speech operations.

3. When correcting errors, attention should be fixed on the mistake itself rather than on the learner. The learner should always be encouraged in every possible way.
4. Errors should always be corrected when they prevent comprehension or when they distort the meaning of an utterance. Not all errors need to be corrected immediately; normal speech often contains errors which are not particularly important from a communicative point of view. Such mistakes should not receive undue attention, since constant correction weakens motivation and can easily create psychological barriers against speaking and learning.
5. Error correction should take the form of explanations. Repetition of the correct form is an important aid to memorisation.

By following such general principles the teacher can free herself from the correction of errors in communicative situations proper. Similarly, students can concentrate on communication content so long as the fear of making mistakes is not constantly uppermost in their minds in conversational situations.

The fear of making mistakes is typical especially for adult students, who are generally more inhibited and reserved than younger people. This is due to the special characteristics of adult learners (see Kraseninnikov 1981). Adults have a certain social status, and their own ways of learning and expressing things; they find it difficult to relinquish these habits. For instance, an adult learner is accustomed to being listened to without interruptions. The fear of making mistakes is increased by the fact that adults compare their foreign and native language skills and evaluate the former on that basis. This generally leads to a pessimistic view of their own foreign language skills and can easily result in negative motivation. Constant evaluation of results, with encouragement and rewards for success, is for this reason very important. The teacher should also provide students from the beginning with objective criteria for self-evaluation.

3.2.2. The development of oral skills

The *second phase of activation* differs from the first in being far freer from constraints and more creative. The tasks used in this phase are such as will direct activity; in other words, the language use situation itself guides and delimits speech activity. The learner selects his own means of expression and constructs his linguistic behaviour on the basis of these. The function of the teacher is to outline a general situation by providing a flexible framework for speech activity. In practice this means elaborating *études* both in pairs and in group work. In intensive teaching, an "étude" means a certain form of purposeful and psychologically motivated speech activity, the function of which is to engage the student's emotions, creative imagination, and mental activity.

The exercises in the second phase of activation rely on previously acquired language competence. The student is presumed to have the ability to select and apply previously practised linguistic material to new circumstances. At the same time, he learns to organise the material and combine discrete microstructures into a single macrostructure. The transfer of learning is distinctly apparent in this phase: the students are able to combine what they have learnt in new ways and to apply it to new situations. As learning progresses, tasks become increasingly creative and give greater freedom in the choice and use of the means of expression. Thus, spontaneous speech gradually develops.

The role of the teacher changes radically in the second phase of activation. She no longer takes an active part in guiding activity, but merely stimulates the speech behaviour of the students. The teacher withdraws into the background, so to speak, and adopts the role of an observer, who only interferes in the activity if learners make mistakes which might hinder communication or comprehension, or if, for instance in pair work, they stray completely onto the "wrong tracks"; then the teacher can tactfully and inconspicuously correct errors or interrupt activity in what she deems to be an appropriate fashion. The correction of mistakes should, in principle, be avoided in this phase.

In preparing for the second phase of activation, the teacher must pay particular attention to the choice of études. She can prepare études that are connected by a plot or completely separate ones for small groups of different sizes. Problem-solving tasks involving the whole class or two teams should also be set; these can be done in the form of conversations, debates, and competitions. In principle, all the types of activity used in the first phase of activation are possible in the second. The teacher must be sure that the learners can independently perform the tasks given to them. As in the previous phase, the teacher, when designing tasks, must aim for natural communicative situations which resemble familiar classroom situations as little as possible. She should also display genuine interest in the topic of communication.

The two phases of activation described above provide opportunities for active thought and creativeness, particularly when cognitive and problem-solving tasks are used in addition to games. Involuntary learning also occurs simultaneously with active thought. Matters connected with the student's interests or with the gratification of his needs are memorised, for the most part, subconsciously.

Intensive teaching differs from traditional language teaching particularly in that the teaching process progresses on a basis of mainly collective forms of work and activity. The teacher's role as the organiser of this joint activity is of great importance. The application of intensive methods to teaching requires special teacher training together with considerable practical experience of intensive teaching. This training can exploit, for instance, the video tapes produced during numerous teaching experiments which show the different phases of teaching and the working practices used (for example, Kitaigorodskaya 1979; Laihiala-Kankainen & Koponen 1984; Racle 1984). Models and examples of work forms are included in the teacher's guides of many intensive courses and in various resource books containing material for role play and games (for example, Arutiunov et al. 1984, 1985).

3.3. Evaluating teaching outcomes

The evaluation of teaching and learning is an important part of intensive teaching which is still in the early stages of development. Although oral communication skills are predominantly taught, the final objective is the development of all the linguistic sub-skills. This requires a versatile approach to evaluation and to the monitoring of progress. In this work it is possible, in part, to use traditional testing techniques and methods of evaluation which are appropriate to testing at the level of speech operations, i.e. evaluating speech *habits*. The evaluation of oral *skills*, on the other hand, is more problematical, because reliable criteria for evaluation have not so far been developed.

Many of the methods used in traditional language teaching can be applied in the evaluation of intensive teaching. For instance, the accumulation of *vocabulary* is generally monitored by means of vocabulary tests administered after each theme (every third day). Command of vocabulary is usually evaluated by means of a listening comprehension test which involves about 50 semantic units (a semantic unit can consist of an individual word, a phrase, or an incomplete sentence). Students hear the tape twice, the first time with pauses after each item to enable them to write down the meanings of semantic units.

Knowledge of language structures can be tested by using traditional multiple choice tests, true/false statements, cloze tests, etc. Evaluation may also take the form of continuous assessment of classroom activities. Evaluation results enable the teacher to allocate homework on an individual basis.

According to Kitaigorodskaya, *listening comprehension* should be checked at least once a week during an intensive course. The test is generally made up of a story in dialogue or monologue form, the length of which may vary from 400 to 1,200 units depending on the level of the course. The story is told only once at a natural speaking rate. Various tasks can be given, e.g. retelling the content in the native language,

giving a graphic representation, answering multiple choice questions, completing the story, etc.

In the later phases of the course *reading comprehension* can also be tested. In intensive courses the reading objective is, above all, the gathering of information. Testing, thus, also emphasises comprehension of content. The text is compiled on the basis of the linguistic material included in the course, its length varying from 600 to 1,200 units, depending on the level of the course. In addition to reading comprehension, the improvement and monitoring of *reading speed* is also considered important. The performance objective is a minimum of 400 letters per minute. On beginners' courses the production of *written work* is evaluated only on the basis of the short written answers sometimes produced as homework.

The development of speech habits can be monitored and evaluated fairly well using the traditional testing methods described above. However, the central aims of intensive teaching belong in the complex area of oral skills; consequently, evaluation of specifically oral production skills in a variety of communicative situations is required. The interest in communicative language teaching has led relatively recently to methods of evaluating productive skills themselves becoming subjects of research and discussion in the field of language teaching methodology. Evaluation criteria for the measurement of oral skills have, therefore, not been established yet, although various experiments and proposals have been made. Kitaigorodskaya (1982, 76) emphasises the importance of considering at least the following factors when evaluating oral skills in a foreign language:

1. speech tempo (with numbers of pauses and utterances produced within a given time also noted)
2. speed of reaction in spontaneous communication
3. complexity
4. use of established communicative models, idioms, etc.
5. syntactic variation
6. appropriateness of utterances
7. non-standard expressions
8. number of errors relative to the number of utterances.

Evaluation of teaching outcomes is important, but it must not be allowed to interfere with the creativity or psychological atmosphere of the teaching process. The teacher should pay particular attention to the way and means by which evaluation is carried out. Strict and formal testing methods conflict with the principles of the method. The significance of continuous assessment is emphasised in intensive teaching and it is seen as part of the teacher's normal activity during each teaching period. Continuous positive feedback is also important from the viewpoint of learning progress.

Final tests or exams are usually not arranged, but on the last day of the course the students mount their own *production*, the script of which they prepare independently with the aid of course materials - and possibly also the teacher's expertise. In these end-of-course productions the results of the group's joint activity can be seen in the creative use of language and in the coherence of the group. The production can also be exploited for teaching purposes, e.g. by taping the end result and analysing it in a joint session.

4. Intensive teaching and the "new didactics"¹

Although intensive teaching requires measures and arrangements differing to some extent from those of ordinary teaching, many of its general principles reflect the expectations and demands currently directed at teaching generally. Intensive teaching methodology is representative of modern pedagogical aims in emphasising the integrated development of the intellectual, motivational, and emotional aspects of the learner's personality. The aims and procedures of the methodology very closely follow the principles of the "new didactics", which can be outlined, on a general level, as follows (Leontiev & Utes 1986):

¹ The concept "new didactics" is used here in contrast to traditional didactics (e.g. Olkinuora 1984).

1. The *principle of active participation* means that all learners are involved in the joint learning activity as equal participants. They are not the passive objects of teaching and manipulation. Realisation of this principle presupposes that the teacher should carefully plan and organise activities so as to teach independent forms of work both inside and outside the classroom.
2. According to the *creative principle*, the learner's active participation should be of a creative nature; in other words, the learning situation should offer opportunities for independent assessment of situations and the use of independent procedures and solutions.
3. The *collective principle* is closely connected with the concept of active participation and presupposes that the teacher should consciously guide and organise joint (learning) activities. Achievement of the joint aim of learning activity requires division of labour and a personal contribution from each participant in the group. The more strongly the methodological organisation of teaching influences the development of a learner collective, the more favourable are the chances for the personal development of each individual group member.
4. The *problem-solving principle* means that learning materials, tests, and exercises are always presented in ways which aim at the solution of some problem (communicative, intellectual, aesthetic, etc.). Teaching should involve a series of problem-solving tasks which will motivate the students to the required tasks.
5. The *principle of development-oriented teaching* is closely connected with the foregoing. The tasks given should stimulate the learner and guide his development step by step by setting immediate objectives at an appropriate level. Tasks which do not do this have no clear didactic function.
6. According to the *principle of motivation*, a motive or system of motives is the moving force behind the learner's

desire to perform the tasks presented. In order to arouse and maintain motivation, it is necessary to stress problem- and development-oriented teaching methods. From a motivational viewpoint it is also important to engage all the learners in the joint learning activity. Different collective work forms are thus, from the motivational standpoint, of central importance.

7. The *principle of individualisation* has traditionally been understood to mean that the teacher should as far as possible take into account each learner's individual characteristics. Individuality, however, can also be interpreted in accordance with the principles of active and collective participation: the learner can find an outlet for his own interests, personality, and experience in collective group activity where his personal characteristics will find much better expression than in traditional individualised teaching.

According to Leontiev and Utes (1986), the realisation of these principles in teaching requires considerable changes in current teaching practice, involving, for instance, the role of the teacher in the teaching process and the structure and content of lessons; didactic principles should already receive attention at the stage of materials preparation. The inter-relationship between education and teaching also requires re-evaluation. A complete renewal of the whole didactic system is thus required.

Olkinuora (1984) presents a basic didactic model in which the factors affecting the teaching-learning process and their inter-relationships are shown as follows (Figure 2):

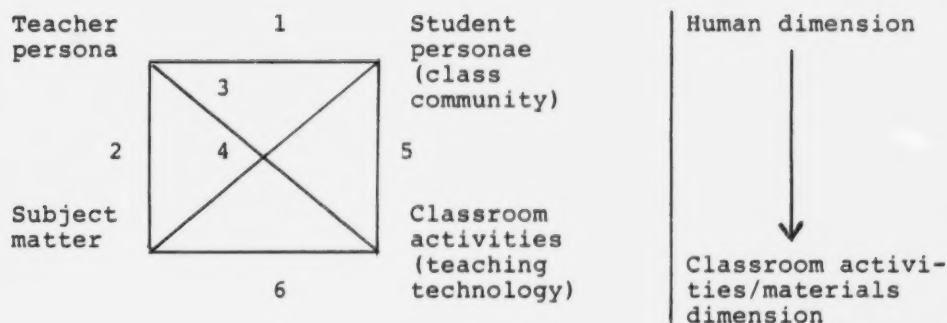


Figure 2. Basic didactic model (Olkinuora 1984)

The following basic didactic variables can be distinguished in the model:

- 1 = the teacher persona in relation to the class community and to the students
- 2 = the teacher's personal relationship to the subject matter
- 3 = the teacher's personal relationship to the classroom activities
- 4 = the students' relationship to the subject matter
- 5 = the students' relationship to the classroom activities
- 6 = the relationship between classroom activities and the subject matter.

The model provides a good overall conception of the various aspects of teaching and their inter-relationships. It suggests that there are always two kinds of reciprocal relationship in a teaching situation: human interaction (between teacher and learners, and between learners) and material interaction (factors following from the use of learning materials and teaching aids). Olkinuora emphasises the human dimension of teaching-learning activity and its determinant position at the level of classroom activities and materials, so dominant in traditional teaching.

The central principles of the "new didactics" have profoundly influenced intensive teaching methodology. The teacher's role as a regulator of human interaction and as a director of the learning process places new demands on her professional skills

and the development of her personality. It is often emphasised that intensive teaching requires the creation and training of an entirely new "type" of teacher (for example, Leontiev 1979b).

V CONCLUSION

Suggestopaedy was born in the late 1960s, at a time when the development of language teaching theory had ended up in a blind alley. This phase is often referred to as the "methodological crisis" (Stern 1983). The prevailing methodological concepts and ideas were generally considered restricted, and it appeared desirable to replace them with new premises for the development of language teaching. This change in thinking became evident, above all, in the move away from a teaching- and methods-centred approach towards a learner-centred concept of teaching and towards in-depth research into and a deeper understanding of learning. Communicativeness and communicative competence became key concepts, while socio-linguistic factors became central objects of attention. Although the 1970s are generally characterised, in the literature on language teaching methodology, as a time of reaction against method-centred thinking, it was a period which saw the appearance of a number of new teaching methods which have become particularly favoured by teachers and which have received considerable public attention, for instance in the mass media. In addition to suggestopaedy, *The Silent Way* and *Community Language Learning* can be cited as well-known new trends in language teaching (see Stevick 1984). These methods differ from "old" ones in being learner-centred and in emphasising the psychodynamic factors involved in learning. Another common feature is that they have not developed into general approaches, as did the earlier audiolingual or cognitive teaching methods, but that they operate, rather, as alternatives to traditional language teaching. Since they were developed on the initiative of single individuals and emphasise certain specific features in teaching, they can be considered as being like unitary movements. Furthermore, they divide language teachers and researchers into two distinct camps as regards attitudes towards them: for and against.

Of these new teaching methods, suggestopaedy has perhaps become the most widespread, gaining the greatest number of "followers" in different countries. What, then, is the sig-

nificance of suggestopaedy to the development of language teaching? This is a difficult question to answer, since the total effect of Lozanov's theory is not yet clearly discernible. It is evident, however, that suggestopaedy has made a significant contribution to teaching development and to a deeper understanding of learning. To use Kuhn's terminology, Lozanov's theory can be considered as representing a scientific revolution in language teaching methodology. It rejects the principles and premises of earlier, traditional teaching and represents a completely new conception, both of teaching and of learning. The different and "revolutionary" character of this approach is emphasised in the very titles of works on Lozanov's theory and system, e.g. *Suggestopaedy: A New Amazing Way To Learn* (Lozanov 1980), or *The Learning Revolution* (Ostrander et al. 1982).

The concept of progress, or advancement, is considered a characteristic of science. Scientific knowledge does not merely change and develop, but it contains phases which are real advances, or are identified as such (Niiniluoto 1984). There is good reason to ask whether suggestopaedy represents such an advance in the development of language teaching.

In considering the progress of scientific knowledge and research, Niiniluoto (1984, 253), on the basis of a study by Martin and Irvine, distinguishes three different ways in which an individual publication or piece of research can influence research and development in a given field; these are quality, importance, and impact. 'Quality' indicates how well the research or publication has been carried out, or how original its conclusions are. 'Importance' refers to the potential influence of the research on other research activity. Allied to this is the concept of 'impact', which indicates the actual influence of a scientific theory or piece of research on the activity of the scientific community at a given time.

In accordance with this categorisation, Lozanov's suggestopaedic theory can be interpreted as having had significant impact on the field of teaching and learning research. This influence is evident, above all, in the increased volume

of research aimed at improving the efficiency of learning and tapping the potential resources of the learner's personality. The lively interest shown in various countries in the suggestopaedic teaching method provides further confirmation of its influence. The future must show whether this influence is permanent, and how it may yet be exploited.

With the spread of Lozanov's ideas to many countries in the late 1970s and early 1980s, the suggestopaedic method was patented; from time to time there have been demands that the "purity" of suggestopaedic doctrine should be preserved (e.g. Ilpola 1983). This is perhaps to be understood as a wish to emphasise the need for a profound knowledge of and familiarity with the system so as to prevent the spread of inaccurate information concerning it. In a theoretical sense, however, such actions cannot be justified, since science is by nature open to investigation and evaluation. Science is a system of perpetual change and self-correction, which aspires to the goal of objectivity. Openness and a critical attitude are preconditions for the advancement of scientific knowledge and theoretical thinking. In this sense it is quite natural that Lozanov's theory has given rise to a number of different trends and schools, in which his ideas have been further developed and combined with various new elements. Thus, for instance, *interactive pedagogy*, *superlearning*, and *sophrology* have all received strong stimuli from suggestopaedy, but present themselves as independent trends, while their success has largely remained dependent on the active efforts of the individual researchers and teachers who developed them.

In contrast to the creators of the above-mentioned trends, Soviet methodologists have endeavoured to create a wider pedagogical and didactic frame of reference, which would bring together different suggestopaedy-based methods and give them a consistent theoretical foundation. This has been the premise for the development of *intensive teaching*, in which certain of Lozanov's central ideas have been integrated with Soviet psychological and pedagogic theories and scientific traditions. Although the term "intensive teaching", owing to its ambiguity, is not considered a totally successful choice of

name for the new approach, it has already become established in common parlance. In the forms of intensive teaching based on suggestopaedy, "intensiveness" denotes the aim of *heightening the internal intensity of the teaching process and activating learning* by exploiting the potential reserves of the learner's personality.

In what respects, then, does intensive teaching differ from suggestopaedy? One could answer this question briefly by stating that the theoretical basis of the suggestopaedic system has been extended from psychotherapy and psychophysiology to include the general psychological and pedagogical principles of teaching. The effectiveness of intensive teaching is the result of the joint influence of many different factors and, therefore, theories and research results in a number of separate scientific fields are of crucial importance to its development.

The premise for the development of intensive teaching is the *theory of activity*, from which the general basic concepts concerning language and learning can be derived. According to this theory, language has two functions in human activity: on the one hand, it is a *code system*, which enables us to name objects in the external world, their actions, properties, and inter-relationships; on the other hand, language is a *communicative tool*, which makes possible the storage and transmission of knowledge. Language and speech belong more specifically in the sphere of *speech activity theory*, in which speech is examined as one form of activity within the framework of general psychology.

The concept of learning which derives from the theory of activity emphasises the *active* and *purposeful* nature of learning, and consideration of factors connected with the *personality* of the learner, i.e. the influence of creativeness, individuality, and emotional factors on the learning process. It is possible to distinguish two separate areas in foreign language learning: *speech habits* and *oral skills*. The purpose of language teaching is to transform linguistic competence (knowledge) into linguistic performance (use of language). Achievement of this objective requires the organic integration of

exercises aimed at the development of speech habits and oral skills into the teaching process.

In addition to general psychology, social psychology has also influenced the development of intensive teaching. The *theory of the psychology of the collective* and *communication psychology* have been applied to language teaching in a particularly interesting fashion. In intensive teaching, guidance and control of the interactive processes occurring in the group is a central factor influencing learning and it requires both a knowledge of the psychological theory of the collective and pedagogical communication skills on the part of the teacher.

Intensive teaching can be seen as a *methodological system* which has its own aims and content, as well as certain psychological and pedagogical principles, and which is realised through a variety of concrete methodologies. In this sense, suggestopaedy can be considered one form of intensive teaching. The principles of intensive methods approximate very closely to the expectations and requirements generally placed on contemporary teaching. They may thus be considered as very representative of the aims and developmental trends of modern pedagogics.

It is difficult to predict the future of intensive teaching as yet. It would appear, however, to have an established position as a trend in language teaching and the development of its theoretical principles and practical solutions is the subject of ever-widening interest and research activity. The extent to which intensive methods will influence traditional language teaching on a wide scale is, at present, still a matter for conjecture. However, there is already some evidence for the activating influence of some applications of intensive teaching principles and methods also on traditional teaching practice.

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¹ Russian titles have been transliterated according to the internationally accepted scientific transliteration practice, with the exception of those proper names which already have an established way of writing in English.

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INTENSIVE COURSE IN RUSSIAN
for students of Social Sciences and the Humanities

PRINCIPLES OF MATERIALS PREPARATION

This intensive course is primarily intended for use with university students and researchers in the social sciences and humanities, but suitable sections can also be used in other forms of adult language teaching.

The course comprises 80 teaching hours, divided into 4 daily lessons on 5 days a week, or, if preferred, 3 days a week using selected themes. The order in which themes are taught is optional.

The course comprises the following parts:

Student's Book

- 9 scripted dialogues with supplementary material
- audio-cassettes for home use: tapes of scripted dialogues and listening comprehension material

Teacher's Guide

- methodological recommendations
- lesson plan and instructions for exercises
- audio- and video-tape scripts
- separate monograph containing supplementary materials

Course participants are expected to know the basic structures of Russian.

In the planning and preparation of the materials the needs and forms of cultural and scientific cooperation between the Soviet Union and Finland have been taken into account. Because of this, special attention has been paid to developing the kind of language skills needed in situations which Finnish students (researchers, visitors) may encounter when visiting the Soviet Union as students, cultural ambassadors, or scientists, and also when receiving visitors from the Soviet Union.

The course covers 10 themes (scripted dialogues), which can be characterised generally as follows:

1. "Let's get acquainted"
 - getting to know somebody: introductions, talking about oneself (profession, workplace, nationality, languages spoken, etc.)
2. "Welcome to"
 - greetings and making appointments: making an appointment (deciding on time, place, etc.); telephone conversations and conventions concerning the use of the telephone
3. "How are your studies progressing?"
 - studying: talking about one's own studies (university, subjects, curriculum, etc.), comparing university education systems in different countries
4. "What is your research subject?"
 - post-graduate and scientific research: talking about one's post-graduate studies, research, working in a library, lectures, congresses, defence of the dissertation, etc.

5. "Thank you for the invitation"
 - leisure activities, hobbies and interests: making and accepting an invitation, expressing criticism of play (film, concert, etc.), expressing opinion, etc.
6. "What is your profession?"
 - work and profession: telling about one's work; general questions concerning working conditions and employment, salaries, working hours, etc.
7. "How do you live?"
 - life style: living and housing conditions and problems connected with these, standard of living, quality of life, etc.
8. "Peace for all"
 - social questions: social and political organisations, international cooperation and world peace
9. "Goodbye, Moscow"
 - saying goodbye: arranging to meet again; thanking, expressing good wishes, etc.
10. "Meeting again in Helsinki"
 - review of all previous themes and generalisation (no scripted dialogue included, but students make up and present one themselves)

Within each theme the Teacher's Guide specifically defines the situations and functions central to the theme. For example, the objective of the first theme is for the students to be able to use Russian for the following purposes:

- getting to know one's interlocutor; introducing oneself
- introducing a friend or acquaintance
- greetings, taking into account the age, social status, etc. of the person one is addressing
- asking the name, nationality, profession, place of work of one's interlocutor; giving the same information about oneself
- evaluating one's own and one's interlocutor's language skills (studied the/a foreign language for how long, when, where, etc.)
- describing one's journey to the Soviet Union (purpose of journey, length of stay, etc.)
- filling in forms (biographical data, etc.)

In order to achieve these objectives, the Teacher's Guide specifies the speech models in the scripted dialogues (the communicative core), which should form the basis of activation practice. These speech models for the first themes are, in English, as follows:

Greetings

Good morning/afternoon, Maria Andreyevna.

Good morning. Good afternoon. Good evening.

Hello. Hello, Helena.

Getting acquainted without the help of an intermediary

Let's get to know each other. Let's get acquainted.

May I introduce myself? Might I introduce myself?

Let me introduce myself; I'm Mäkinen from Finland.

Excuse me, I don't think we've met. We have not been introduced.

What's your name?

My name is Eva/Maria Andreyevna / Mikko/Konstantin Sergeyevich.
What is your surname?

My name is Jaatinen/Simonovoa/ Mokhov.

What is your first name and patronymic?

Maria Andreyevna/ Konstantin Sergeyevich.

And your surname? - Mokhov/ Simonova.

I'm sorry, I've forgotten your surname. - Mokhov/Simonova.

My first name is Eva, but I have no patronymic.

Call me Mikko.

I beg your pardon / excuse me, but are you Vera Nikolayevna / Marika Eklund?
Yes, I am.

Getting acquainted with the help of an intermediary

I'd like you two to meet each other.

This is Helena Pitkänen from Turku. Helena, this is Konstantin Sergeyevich.

Let me introduce you to X.

May I introduce...?

Would you like me to introduce you?

Replying when being introduced

Glad/nice/pleased to meet you.

I am pleased/happy to make your acquaintance.

(Do you know each other already?) Have you met?

We already know each other.

(We met a long time ago.) We've known each other for a long time already.

Have we met (somewhere) before?

We met each other last year in the APN.

I recognised you at once.

Do you know him/her?

Yes, I do. No, I don't.

Telling about oneself, asking about one's interlocutor

Where are you from? Where do you come from?

What town/country do you come from?

Are you from Finland/Moscow? - Yes, I am (from Finland/Moscow).

What is your nationality? - I'm Finnish.

Are you Russian? - Yes, I am (Russian)./No, I'm Finnish.

Where do you live? - I live in Moscow/Helsinki/the Soviet Union.

Do you live here/in Finland?

What hotel are you staying at? - I'm staying at the Rossiya (Hotel).

Are you studying or working? - I'm studying/working.

Where are you studying? - I'm studying at a university/the MGU.

Where have you learnt (studied) Russian? - At school/university.

Where do you work? - I work at an institute/in a factory.

What is your profession/job? - I'm a reporter/psychologist.

What is your professional status (job)? - I'm a post-graduate student/
professor/assistant.

What is your degree?

I'm a Ph D / Master of Psychology.

We're colleagues.

Do you work as a teacher? Are you a teacher?

Where are you going (travelling)? - I'm going to a congress / to Moscow /
to the institute.

Have you been to Moscow before?

Have you been to Moscow often?

Have you been travelling on business? Are you travelling on business?

Are you travelling to Moscow as a tourist?

Do you speak Russian? - Yes, a little. / No.
 You speak Russian very well.
 Have you studied Russian long? - One year / two/five years.
 I read the literature in my field in Russian.
 Are you going to lecture in Swedish/Russian/English?
 Can you speak / Do you know Russian/Finnish/French?
 I understand almost everything, but so far I speak it very badly.
 I would like to learn Russian/German/English.
 Russian is difficult. Is Finnish difficult?

Responding when being addressed

Yes.
 Yes, all right.
 I understand. OK.
 That's true.
 No.
 I don't understand. I didn't get (understand) that.
 What did you say? I beg your pardon, what did you say?
 Very interesting. How interesting! Fine.
 Thanks. Many thanks. Thank you very much. Thank you.
 You're welcome. / My pleasure. / Don't mention it.
 Please. Here you are.
 Sorry.

In addition to the above speech models, the Teacher's Guide gives directions on what grammar structures are to be developed together with what themes. In connection with the first theme the following structures are emphasised:

- using Russian verbs of movement without a prefix: to travel, walk (come, go)
- present and past tense of imperfective verbs: study/studied, work/worked; in particular, 1st person singular and 2nd person plural
- noun cases (nominative, genitive, accusative, prepositional) used together with prepositions (v = in/into; na = at/on; iz = out of; s = from)
- use of personal pronouns (especially 1st person singular and 2nd person plural: I/you, me /you, to me/you) and the use of possessive pronouns (my/your)
- use of adverbs: well, in Russian; temporal adverbs: a long time, at once
- use of Russian modals (for example, in the expression: pleased to meet you)
- use of numerals (1-20)
- use of question words: where, from where, where to
- use of adjectives: easy/difficult, Russian/Finnish
- phrases: in Russian / in Finnish, in the Russian language / in the Finnish language.

In the Student's Book these grammatical structures are presented in schematised form (see Appendix 4). The central vocabulary of each theme is translated into Finnish (30-40 words in their basic form and in context) and a short reading passage (also included on the audio cassette) is likewise provided.

INTENSIVE COURSE IN RUSSIAN
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SYLLABUS

	<u>1st day</u>	<u>2nd day</u>	<u>3rd day</u>	<u>4th day</u>	<u>5th day</u>
1. double lesson	Information Assignment of roles	Theme 1 Activation (1)	Theme 1 Activation (2)	Theme 2 Activation (1)	Theme 2 Activation (2)
2. double lesson	Theme 1 Presentation	Theme 1 Activation (1)	Theme 2 Presentation	Theme 2 Activation (1)	Theme 3 Presentation
	<u>6th day</u>	<u>7th day</u>	<u>8th day</u>	<u>9th day</u>	<u>10th day</u>
1. double lesson	Theme 3 Activation (1)	Theme 3 Activation (2)	Theme 4 Activation (1)	Theme 4 Activation (2)	Theme 5 Activation (1)
2. double lesson	Theme 3 Activation (1)	Theme 4 Presentation	Theme 4 Activation (1)	Theme 5 Presentation	Theme 5 Activation (1)
	<u>11th day</u>	<u>12th day</u>	<u>13th day</u>	<u>14th day</u>	<u>15th day</u>
1. double lesson	Theme 5 Activation (2)	Theme 6 Activation (1)	Theme 6 Activation (2)	Theme 7 Activation (1)	Theme 7 Activation (2)
2. double lesson	Theme 6 Presentation	Theme 6 Activation (1)	Theme 7 Presentation	Theme 7 Activation (1)	Theme 8 Presentation
	<u>16th day</u>	<u>17th day</u>	<u>18th day</u>	<u>19th day</u>	<u>20th day</u>
1. double lesson	Theme 8 Activation (1)	Theme 8 Activation (2)	Theme 9 Activation (1)	Theme 9 Activation (2)	Theme 10 Exercise
2. double lesson	Theme 8 Activation (1)	Theme 9 Presentation	Theme 9 Activation (1)	Theme 10 Preparation	Theme 10 Student presentation

INTENSIVE COURSE IN RUSSIAN
for students of Social Sciences

ROLE ASSIGNMENT

In the scripted dialogues there are both Finnish and Russian characters and the course members are assigned their roles. In the Teacher's Guide 12 basic roles are presented, of which 6 are Finnish and 6 Russian. In the dialogues the Finnish participants travel to Moscow and their meetings with the Russian characters are played out. In the Teacher's Guide each character is given a name as well as some biographical data and personal characteristics. If there are more than 12 participants, more roles can be assigned (for example, the dean of the faculty and librarian, who both appear in the dialogues).

The initial introduction and assimilation of roles can best be managed by giving each character a "visiting card". The teacher can prepare these in advance, following the model below, which gives the person's name, degree or profession, place of work and home address and telephone number.

МАРИЯ АНДРЕЕВНА ВОЛКОВА
доктор психологических наук
ИНСТИТУТ ПСИХОЛОГИИ АН СССР
Адрес: 132 643 Москва
Ул. Горького, дом 15
Телефон: 153-05-46

The characters have been given the following role outlines in the Teacher's Guide:

Belov, Mikhail Viktorovich (43)

- Master of History, docent at the Department of General History, Moscow University; special field: Finno-Russian relations
- member of the organising committee of the congress
- Mikko Kivelä's scientific advisor
- lives in Moscow: Kalinin Prospekt 3, flat 23; tel. 335-05-45
- somewhat withdrawn, matter-of-fact

Eklund, Marika (32)

- reporter for the Finnish Broadcasting Company, into her second year at Radio Moscow
- has contact with APN (Soviet news agency), and so knows Nikitin, among others, well
- lives in Moscow in the House for Finnish Specialists; address in Finland: Vaasankatu 34 D 15, 00500 Helsinki; tel. 372 237
- very sociable and energetic

Frolkova, Ludmila Ivanovna (27)

- into her second year as post graduate student of General History at Moscow University
- knows Mäkinen from before, as she studied at Leningrad University at the same time as he did
- lives in Moscow: Rozhdestvenski Avenue 5, flat 7; tel. 405-32-02
- a very determined, modern woman

Jaatinen, Eva (41)

- sociologist, D.So. Sc. (Doctor of Social Sciences), Professor at Helsinki University
- is active in the scientific cooperation project of sociologists of Finland and the Soviet Union, knows Simonova well
- is travelling to Moscow to attend an international congress
- is staying in Moscow at Hotel Rossiya; address in Finland: Mikonkatu 18 B 32, 00100 Helsinki; tel. 277 882
- an elegant and beautiful lady, kind and pleasant by nature

Kivelä, Mikko (30)

- economist, studies at Moscow University, working on his licentiate dissertation
- Belov is his scientific advisor at Moscow University
- lives in Moscow in student dormitory; address in Finland: Alhokuja 3, 00780 Helsinki; tel. 342 437
- industrious student, somewhat shy, interested in social issues

Mokhov, Konstantin Sergeyevich (50)

- Ph.D., associate member of the Soviet Academy of Sciences, director of a department at the Institute of Philosophy of the Academy
- is taking part in the international congress in Moscow
- address in Moscow: Sadovaya Avenue 17, flat 16; tel. 117-07-12
- has a sense of humour, a very tactful and polite man

Mäkinen, Heikki (28)

- translator/interpreter for a Finnish firm, representing his firm at an international exhibition in Moscow
- interpreter at the congress as well
- has studied at Leningrad University at the same time as Frolkova
- is staying at Hotel Moscova; address in Finland: Vapaudenkatu 10, 15110 Lahti; tel. 288 166
- a happy nature, gets on well with people, has many friends and acquaintances in Moscow

Nikitin, Eugeni Petrovich (45)

- reporter at APN (Soviet news agency)
- knows Eklund through his job, cooperates a great deal with Western reporters
- very knowledgeable about social issues, is taking part in the congress as part of his work
- address in Moscow: Ovchinnikov Street 4, flat 19; tel. 323-77-07
- helpful, well-meaning and sympathetic

Pitkänen, Helena (32)

- psychologist, research assistant at the Finnish Academy
- in Moscow on a scholarship to get acquainted with the Institute of Psychology at the Soviet Academy of Sciences
- Volkova is her scientific advisor in Moscow
- lives in Moscow at the Academy of Science's hall of residence; address in Finland: Kalervonkatu 5 A 16, 20520 Turku; tel. 252 473
- a quiet person, somewhat shy and timid

Simonova, Vera Nikolayevna (37)

- Master of Philosophy, senior researcher at the Soviet institute for sociological research, takes part in the joint research project of Finnish and Russian sociologists
- member of the organising committee of the congress, knows Mokhov and Jaatinen well
- address in Moscow: Kropotkinskaya Street 12, flat 5; tel. 662-34-84
- verly lively, sociable and good-tempered

Suominen, Juhani (41)

- reporter for a Finnish journal, has come to Moscow to write a series of articles about life in Russia for his journal
- cooperates with, for example, Nikitin
- is staying in Moscow at Hotel Berlin; address in Finland: Hämeenkatu 14 C 4, 33100 Tampere; tel. 254 726
- very talkative, energetic and anxious to be the centre of attention

Volkova, Maria Andreyevna (45)

- Doctor of Philosophy, professor, works as head of department in the Institute of Psychology
- is Pitkänen's scientific advisor
- address in Moscow: Gorky Street 15, flat 45; tel. 153-34-82
- is taking part in the congress
- serious, very matter-of-fact and well-organised

ИНТЕНСИВНЫЙ КУРС РУССКОГО ЯЗЫКА

Для студентов-нефилологов гуманитарного профиля
КНИГА ДЛЯ СТУДЕНТА .

VENÄJÄN KIELEN INTENSIIVIKURSSI

Yhteiskuntatieteiden ja humanististen alojen opiskelijoille
OPISKELIJAN KIRJA

S. Laihiala-Kankainen

R. S. Surmonina

M. Hakkarainen

1. ДАВАЙТЕ ПОЗНАКОМИМСЯ!

(Theme 1. Let's get acquainted!)

Kielikeskusmateriaalia n:o 39

Language Centre Materials No. 39

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1. ДАВАЙТЕ ПОЗНАКОМИМСЯ!

Korkeakoulujen kielikeskus — Jyväskylän yliopisto

Language Centre for Finnish Universities - University of Jyväskylä

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1985

В Хельсинки на вокзале

- Эклюд - Päivä.
- Проводник - Здравствуйте. Ваш билет, пожалуйста.
- Эклюд - Билет? Вот, пожалуйста.
- Проводник - Спасибо. Ваше место номер пять. Понимаете? Вииси.
- Эклюд - Да, да. Понимаю. Спасибо.

В купе

- Эклюд - Здравствуйте.
- Волкова - Здравствуйте. Вы говорите по-русски
- Эклюд - Немного.
- Волкова - Как хорошо! Давайте знакомиться. Меня зовут Мария Андреевна. Моя фамилия Волкова. Как вас зовут?
- Эклюд - Меня зовут Марика. Фамилия Эклюд.
- Волкова - Очень приятно. Вы финка?
- Эклюд - Да. Вы были в командировке в Финляндии?
- Волкова - Да. А вы живете здесь?
- Эклюд - Живу в Хельсинки, а сейчас работаю в Советском Союзе.
- Волкова - Да? А кто вы по специальности?
- Эклюд - Я редактор финского радио. А сейчас работаю корреспондентом радио в Москве.
- Волкова - Очень интересно!
- Эклюд - А вы из Москвы?
- Волкова - Да, я москвичка.
- Эклюд - А где вы работаете?

At Helsinki railway station

- Good morning/afternoon.
- Good morning/afternoon. May I have your ticket, please?
- My ticket? Yes, here you are.
- Thank you. Your seat is number five. Do you understand? Five.
- Oh, yes, I understand. Thank you.

In the carriage

- Good morning/afternoon.
- Good morning/afternoon. Do you speak Russian?
- A little.
- That's good. May I introduce myself? My name is Maria Andreyevna. My surname is Volkova. And what is your name?
- My name is Marika. My surname is Eklund.
- Pleased to meet you. Are you Finnish?
- Yes, I am. Have you been to Finland on business?
- Yes. Do you live here?
- I live in Helsinki, but work in the Soviet Union.
- Oh, I see. What are you by profession?
- I'm a reporter for the Finnish Broadcasting Company, but I'm now working as a radio correspondent in Moscow.
- Very interesting!
- Are you from Moscow?
- Yes, I'm a Muscovite.
- And where do you work?

- | | | |
|---------|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| Волкова | - В Институте психологии. | - At the Institute of Psychology. |
| Эклюд | - Вы психолог? | - Are you a psychologist? |
| Волкова | - Да. | - Yes, I am. |

В купе входит ещё одна женщина

Another woman enters the carriage

- | | | |
|---------|---|--|
| Ятинен | - Здравствуйте. | - Good morning/afternoon. |
| Волкова | - Здравствуйте. | - Good morning/afternoon. |
| Ятинен | - Вот это, наверное, мое место. | - This must be my seat. |
| Волкова | - У вас номер семь? | - Have you got number seven? |
| Ятинен | - Да. | - Yes. |
| Волкова | - Пожалуйста, устраивайтесь. | - Please, do sit here. |
| Ятинен | - Спасибо. | - Thank you. |
| Волкова | - Вы едете в Москву? | - Are you travelling to Moscow? |
| Ятинен | - Да, я еду на конгресс. | - Yes, I'm going to a congress. |
| Волкова | - Простите, мы не представились. Как вас зовут? | - Excuse me, we haven't introduced ourselves. What is your name? |
| Ятинен | - Меня зовут Эва. | - My name is Eva. |
| Волкова | - А меня Мария Андреевна. | - And my name is Maria Andreyevna. |
| Ятинен | - Я очень рада с вами познакомиться. | - I'm very happy to make your acquaintance. (Pleased to meet you.) |
| Волкова | - А это Марика Эклюд. Она тоже финка. | - And this is Marika Eklund. She is also Finnish. |
| Ятинен | - Очень приятно. | - Pleased to meet you. |
| Волкова | - Вы так хорошо говорите по-русски! Вы, наверное, долго изучали русский язык? | - You speak Russian very well! You must have studied Russian for a long time. |
| Ятинен | - Да, очень долго, 5-6 лет, но мне и сейчас трудно говорить. | - Yes, for very long, 5-6 years, but I still find it difficult to speak. |
| Волкова | - Да? | - Do you? |
| Ятинен | - Я довольно хорошо читаю литературу по специальности на русском языке, а говорить ещё стесняюсь. | - I can read the literature in my own field quite well, but I'm still afraid to speak. |
| Волкова | - Понятно. А кто вы по специальности? | - That's understandable. And what is your profession? |

- | | | |
|---------|---------------------------------|---|
| Ятинен | - Я социолог. А вы? | - I'm a sociologist.
And you? |
| Волкова | - Мы почти коллеги. Я психолог. | - We're almost colleagues.
I'm a psychologist. |

2.

В вагоне-ресторанеIn the restaurant car

- | | | |
|----------|---|--|
| Суоминен | - Hyvää iltaa! | - Good evening. |
| Фролкова | - Здравствуйте. | - Good evening. |
| Суоминен | - Простите, вы русская? | - Excuse me, but are you Russian? |
| Фролкова | - Да, я русская. | - Yes, I'm Russian. |
| Суоминен | - Это место свободно? | - Is this seat free? |
| Фролкова | - Да, пожалуйста. | - Yes. (Please.) |
| Суоминен | - Позвольте представиться:
Юхани Суоминен. | - May I introduce myself?
Juhani Suominen. |
| Фролкова | - Очень приятно. | - Pleased to meet you. |
| Суоминен | - А вас как зовут? | - And what is your name? |
| Фролкова | - Мое полное имя Людмила
Ивановна, но меня можно
называть просто Мила. | - My full name is Ludmila
Ivanovna, but you can
just call me Mila. |
| Суоминен | - Рад с вами познакомиться. | - Pleased to meet you. |
| Фролкова | - Вы очень хорошо говорите
по-русски. Где вы изучали
русский язык? | - You speak Russian very
well. Where have you
studied Russian? |
| Суоминен | - В университете. Да и по рабо-
те мне часто приходится встре-
чаться с русскими. В Советском
Союзе я был много раз. | - At the University. And
at work, too, I often
have quite a lot to do
with Russians. I've
been to the Soviet Union
several times. |
| Фролкова | - Где вы работаете, если не
секрет? | - Where do you work, if
that isn't a secret? |
| Суоминен | - Как сказал ваш поэт: "У меня
секретов нет". Я редактор
одного финского журнала. | - As one of our poets said:
"I have no secrets". I'm
a reporter for a Finnish
journal. |
| Фролкова | - И в Москву едете как журна-
лист? | - Are you travelling to
Moscow as a journalist? |

- | | | |
|----------|---|--|
| Суоминен | - Да. Хочу собрать материал для журнала о жизни советских людей. | - Yes, I want to collect material for my journal life in the Soviet Union. |
| Фролкова | - Как интересно! | - How interesting! |
| Суоминен | - А вы в Финляндии были как туристка? | - Were you in Finland as a tourist? |
| Фролкова | - Я была в гостях. У меня родственники работают здесь. | - I was a visitor. I have relatives working here. |
| Суоминен | - Вы знаете финский язык? | - Do you speak Finnish? |
| Фролкова | - Я знаю только несколько слов. Мне кажется, финский язык такой трудный! | - I know only a few words. I think Finnish is so difficult! |
| Суоминен | - А русский разве легкий? Я почти всю жизнь изучаю его и всё ещё делаю ошибки. | - Is Russian easy then? I've been studying it all my life and I still make mistakes all the time. |
| Фролкова | - Я очень хотела бы выучить финский язык. Когда знаешь язык, легче находить друзей. | - I would very much like to learn Finnish. When you know the language it's easier to make friends. |
| Суоминен | - Это правда. А вы, Мила, ещё учитесь или работаете? | - That's true. What about you, Mila, are you still studying or are you working? |
| Фролкова | - Я аспирантка. | - I'm a post graduate student. |
| Суоминен | - О-оо! Это здорово! Будущий профессор? | - Oh! That's fine. A professor-to-be? |
| Фролкова | - До этого ещё далеко. | - That's still a long way off. |

3

В следующем купеIn the next compartment

- | | | |
|--------|--|--|
| Мохов | - Давайте знакомиться. Меня зовут Константин Сергеевич. Фамилия Мохов. | - May I introduce myself? My name is Konstantin Sergeyevich. My surname is Mokhov. |
| Кивеля | - Очень рад. | - Pleased to meet you. |
| Мохов | - А как вас зовут? | - And what is your name? |
| Кивеля | - Меня зовут Микко. Моя фамилия Кивеля. Можно звать просто Микко. | - My name is Mikko. My surname is Kivelä. Just call me Mikko. |
| Мохов | - А где вы изучали русский язык? | - Where have you studied Russian? |

- Кивеля - Я учился в Финско-русской школе в Хельсинки. А сейчас учусь в МГУ.
- Мохов - В аспирантуре?
- Кивеля - Нет, я стажёр.
- Мохов - Понятно.
- Кивеля - А вы были в командировке?
- Мохов - Да, я был в Швеции. Читал лекции в университете в Стокгольме.
- Кивеля - На шведском языке?
- Мохов - Нет, на английском. Я, к сожалению, не говорю по-шведски.
- Кивеля - Вы преподаватель?
- Мохов - Я научный сотрудник. Работаю в Институте философии в Москве. А ваша специальность?
- Кивеля - Я экономист.
- I went to the Finno-Russian School in Helsinki and now I'm studying at Moscow University.
- As a post graduate student?
- No, I'm on a scholarship.
- I see.
- Were you travelling on business?
- Yes, I was in Sweden. I was lecturing at Stockholm University.
- In Swedish?
- No, in English. Unfortunately, I don't speak Swedish.
- Are you a teacher?
- I'm a researcher. I work at the Institute of Philosophy in Moscow. And what is your specialty?
- I'm an economist.

В купе входит девушка

A young woman enters the compartment

- Кивеля - Хелена, это ты?!
- Питкянен - Микко, привет!
- Мохов - Вы уже знакомы?
- Кивеля - Да, уже давно. Разрешите познакомиться вас. Это Хелена Питкянен из Турку. Мы учились вместе в университете.
- Мохов - Мне очень приятно с вами познакомиться.
- Кивеля - Хелена, это Константин Сергеевич ... Простите, Константин Сергеевич, я забыл вашу фамилию.
- Мохов - Мохов.
- Питкянен - Рада познакомиться с вами.
- Мохов - Вы тоже говорите по-русски?
- Helena, is that you?
- Hello, Mikko.
- Do you already know each other?
- Yes, from long ago. May I introduce you? This is Helena Pitkänen from Turku. We studied together at the University.
- Pleased to meet you.
- Helena, this is Konstantin Sergeyevich... I'm sorry, Konstantin Sergeyevich, I've forgotten your surname.
- Mokhov.
- Pleased to meet you.
- Do you speak Russian too?

- | | | |
|----------|---|--|
| Питкянен | - Немного. Я почти всё понимаю но ещё плохо говорю. | - A little. I understand almost everything, but I still speak badly. |
| Мохов | - Вы куда едете? | - Where are you travelling? |
| Питкянен | - В Москву, в Институт психологии на стажировку. | - To Moscow, to the Institute of Psychology on a study trip. |
| Мохов | - Вы не первый раз едете в Москву? | - You're not going to Moscow for the first time? |
| Питкянен | - Простите, что вы сказали? | - I beg your pardon, what did you say? |
| Мохов | - Вы уже были в Москве? | - Have you been to Moscow before? |
| Питкянен | - Нет, я не была в Москве. | - No, I haven't been to Moscow. |
| Мохов | - Вы живете и работаете в Турку | - Do you live and work in Turku? |
| Питкянен | - Да, в Турку. Работаю в университете. | - Yes, in Turku. I work at the University. |
| Мохов | - Преподавателем? | - As a teacher. |
| Питкянен | - Научным сотрудником. | - As a researcher. |

4.

Перед конгрессомIn Moscow, at the congress

- | | | |
|----------|--|---|
| Мякинен | - Простите, вы не Симонова Вера Николаевна? | - Excuse me, are you Simonova, Vera Nikolayevna? |
| Симонова | - Да, это я. Извините, а кто вы? Откуда вы? | - Yes, I am. Excuse me, but who are you? Where are you from? |
| Мякинен | - Рад представиться: Мякинен, Хейкки Мякинен. Я из Финляндии. | - May I introduce myself: Mäkinen, Heikki Mäkinen. I'm from Finland. |
| Симонова | - А-аа, вы переводчик? | - Oh. Are you an interpreter? |
| Мякинен | - Да, я буду работать переводчиком на вашем конгрессе. | - Yes, I'm going to work as an interpreter at your congress. |
| Симонова | - Очень приятно. Евгений Петрович, знакомьтесь. Это Хейкки Мякинен, переводчик из Финляндии. | - Pleased to meet you. Evgeni Petrovich, come and meet Heikki Mäkinen, an interpreter from Finland. |
| Никитин | - Очень рад. Мы, наверное, уже где-то встречались? | - Pleased to meet you. I'm sure we've already met somewhere. |

- Мякинен - Да, по-моему, мы встречались у вас в АПН в прошлом году. Я вас сразу узнал.
- Никитин - Да, это правда. Вы у нас работали переводчиком.
- Симонова - Вот как! Вы уже опытный переводчик. Это хорошо. Работы будет много.
- Подходит Белов.
- Симонова - Разрешите представить вам члена оргкомитета. Это Михаил Викторович Белов.
- Мякинен - Мне очень приятно. Хейкки Мякинен.
- Белов - Вы из Финляндии?
- Мякинен - Да. Переводчик.
- Yes, I think we met at your place in the APN last year. I recognised you at once.
- Yes, that's true. You worked for us as an interpreter.
- I see. You are an experienced interpreter. That's good. There is going to be a lot of work.
- Belov arrives.
- May I introduce you to a member of the organising committee of the congress. This is Mikhail Viktorovich Belov.
- Pleased to meet you. Heikki Mäkinen.
- Are you from Finland?
- Yes, I'm an interpreter.

5.

Регистрация на конгрессеRegistering at the congress

- Ятинен - Доброе утро.
- Регистратор - Здравствуйте. Пожалуйста, ваша фамилия?
- Ятинен - Моя фамилия Ятинен.
- Регистратор - Имя и отчество?
- Ятинен - Моё имя - Эва. А отчества у меня нет.
- Регистратор - Вы из какой страны?
- Ятинен - Из Финляндии.
- Регистратор - Где вы работаете?
- Ятинен - В Хельсинкском университете.
- Регистратор - Должность?
- Ятинен - Я профессор.
- Регистратор - Ваша ученая степень?
- Good morning.
- Good morning. Your surname, please.
- My surname is Jaatinen.
- Your first name and patronymic?
- My first name is Eva, but I have no patronymic.
- From what country are you?
- From Finland.
- Where do you work?
- At Helsinki University.
- Profession?
- I'm a Professor.
- Your degree?

- Ятинен - Доктор философских наук. - Doctor of Philosophy.
- Регистратор - Какими проблемами вы занимаетесь? - What are your research problems?
- Ятинен - Проблемами образа жизни. - Problems connected with life style.
- Регистратор - В какой секции работаете? - In what section do you work?
- Ятинен - В секции номер два. - In section number two.
- Регистратор - Вы выступаете с докладом? - Are you giving a talk?
- Ятинен - Да. - Yes.
- Регистратор - В какой гостинице вы живёте? - What hotel are you staying at?
- Ятинен - В гостинице "Россия". - At Hotel Rossiya.
- Регистратор - Хорошо. Заполните, пожалуйста, вот эту анкету. - Fine. Please fill in this form.
- Ятинен - Спасибо. - Thank you.
- Регистратор - Вот вам пропуск на конгресс. А здесь можете взять программу - Here is your congress participant's card. And you can take a programme from here.
- Ятинен - Большое спасибо. - Many thanks.
- Регистратор - Успешной вам работы на конгрессе. - I wish you successful work at the congress.

ЭТО ПОЛЕЗНО ЗНАТЬ

(This is good to know)

1. ФАМИЛИЯ, ИМЯ И ОТЧЕСТВО (Surname, first name, and patronymic)

КАК $\begin{cases} \text{ТЕБЯ́} \\ \text{ЕГО́} \\ \text{ЕЁ́} \\ \text{ВАС} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \text{ЗОВУ́Т?}$ МЕНЯ́ $\Rightarrow \text{ЗОВУ́Т} \leftarrow \begin{cases} \text{ПЕККА/ЛЕНА.} \\ \text{ИВА́Н ПЕТРО́ВИЧ.} \\ \text{ГАЛИ́НА ИВА́НОВНА.} \end{cases}$

КАК $\begin{cases} \text{ТВОЯ́} \\ \text{ЕГО́} \\ \text{ЕЁ́} \\ \text{ВА́ША} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \text{ФАМИ́ЛИЯ?}$ МОЯ́ $\Rightarrow \text{ФАМИ́ЛИЯ} \leftarrow \begin{cases} \text{НУРМИ́НЕН.} \\ \text{ПЕТРО́ВСКИЙ.} \\ \text{ПЕТРО́ВСКАЯ.} \end{cases}$

2. ЗНАКОМСТВО (Getting acquainted)

ДАВА́ЙТЕ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ЗНАКО́МИТЬСЯ.} \\ \text{ПОЗНАКО́МИМСЯ.} \end{array} \right. \text{ЗНАКО́МЬТЕСЬ, ПОЗНАКО́МЬТЕСЬ,} \left. \right\} \text{ПОЖА́ЛУИСТА, ЭТО...}$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{РАЗРЕШИ́ТЕ} \\ \text{ПОЗВО́ЛЬТЕ} \end{array} \right\} \text{ПРЕДСТА́ВИТЬСЯ.} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{РАЗРЕШИ́ТЕ} \\ \text{ПОЗВО́ЛЬТЕ} \end{array} \right\} \text{ПРЕДСТА́ВИТЬ ВАМ.../кого/}$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{РАЗРЕШИ́ТЕ} \\ \text{ПОЗВО́ЛЬТЕ} \end{array} \right\} \text{ПОЗНАКО́МИТЬСЯ.} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{РАЗРЕШИ́ТЕ} \\ \text{ПОЗВО́ЛЬТЕ} \end{array} \right\} \text{ПОЗНАКО́МИТЬ ВАС.../с кем/}$

МНЕ О́ЧЕНЬ ПРИЯ́ТНО.

О́ЧЕНЬ $\begin{cases} \text{РАД.} \\ \text{РА́ДА.} \end{cases}$

3. СПЕЦИАЛЬНОСТЬ (Profession)

КТО ВЫ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ПО СПЕЦИА́ЛЬНОСТИ?} \\ \text{ПО ПРОФЕ́ССИИ?} \end{array} \right. \quad \text{Я} \begin{cases} \text{ИНЖЕ́НЕР.} \\ \text{СОЦИО́ЛОГ.} \\ \text{УЧИ́ТЕЛЬНИЦА.} \end{cases}$

4. МЕСТО ЖИТЕЛЬСТВА, РАБОТЫ, УЧЕБЫ (Place of residence, place of work, place of study)

ГДЕ ВЫ $\begin{cases} \text{ЖИВЁТЕ?} \\ \text{РАБОТАЕТЕ?} \\ \text{УЧИТЕСЬ?} \end{cases}$ Я $\begin{cases} \text{ЖИВУ В МОСКВЁ.} \\ \text{РАБОТАЮ В ИНСТИТУТЕ /НА ЗАВОДЕ/.} \\ \text{УЧУСЬ В УНИВЕРСИТЕТЕ.} \end{cases}$

КУДА ВЫ ЕДЕТЕ? Я ЕДУ $\begin{cases} \text{В МОСКВУ.} \\ \text{В КОМАНДИРОВКУ.} \\ \text{НА СТАЖИРОВКУ.} \end{cases}$

ОТКУДА ВЫ? Я ИЗ $\begin{cases} \text{ФИНЛЯНДИИ /СОВЕТСКОГО СОЮЗА/.} \\ \text{МОСКВЫ /ХЕЛЬСИНКИ/.} \end{cases}$

5. НАЦИОНАЛЬНОСТЬ, ЯЗЫК (Nationality, language)

КТО ВЫ ПО НАЦИОНАЛЬНОСТИ? Я $\begin{cases} \text{ФИНН /ФИНКА/.} \\ \text{РУССКИЙ /РУССКАЯ/.} \end{cases}$

ВЫ ГОВОРЯТЕ $\begin{cases} \text{ПО-РУССКИ?} \\ \text{ПО-ФИНСКИ?} \end{cases}$ ОН ЧИТАЕТ ЛЕКЦИИ НА $\begin{cases} \text{РУССКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ.} \\ \text{ФИНСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ.} \end{cases}$

ВЫ ДОЛГО ИЗУЧАЛИ $\begin{cases} \text{РУССКИЙ ЯЗЫК?} \\ \text{ФИНСКИЙ ЯЗЫК?} \end{cases}$ ОДИН ГОД.
ДВА /ТРИ, ЧЕТЫРЕ/ ГОДА.
ПЯТЬ /ШЕСТЬ.../ ЛЕТ.

6. СКОЛЬКО? (How many?)

1	ОДИН, ОДНА, ОДНО	11	ОДИННАДЦАТЬ
2	ДВА, ДВЕ	12	ДВЕНАДЦАТЬ
3	ТРИ	13	ТРИНАДЦАТЬ
4	ЧЕТЫРЕ	14	ЧЕТЫРНАДЦАТЬ
5	ПЯТЬ	15	ПЯТНАДЦАТЬ
6	ШЕСТЬ	16	ШЕСТНАДЦАТЬ
7	СЕМЬ	17	СЕМНАДЦАТЬ
8	ВОСЕМЬ	18	ВОСЕМНАДЦАТЬ
9	ДЕВЯТЬ	19	ДЕВЯТНАДЦАТЬ
10	ДЕСЯТЬ	20	ДВАДЦАТЬ

АКТИВНЫЙ СЛОВАРЬ

ГОВОРИТЬ	speak	говорить по-русски, по-фински
ГОД /ЛЕТ/	year	Сколько лет? Один год, два года.
ГОСТИНИЦА	hotel	жить в гостинице
ЕХАТЬ	travel	ехать в командировку, в Москву
ЖИТЬ	live, be resident	жить в Финляндии, в Москве
ЗВАТЬ	be called	Меня можно звать просто Пекка.
ЗНАКОМИТЬСЯ- ПОЗНАКОМИТЬСЯ	get acquainted, get to know	Давайте знакомиться! Давайте познакомимся!
ЗНАКОМЫЙ	acquaintance	Он мой знакомый. Мы уже знакомы.
ЗНАТЬ	know, recognise	знать язык, слово
ИЗУЧАТЬ	study	изучать русский язык, философию
ИМЯ	first name	Моё имя Пекка.
КОМАНДИРОВКА	business trip	Он был в командировке в Москве.
КОНГРЕСС	congress	ехать на конгресс
ОТЧЕСТВО	patronymic	Как ваше отчество?
ПЛОХО	badly	говорить плохо по-фински, по-немецки
ПОНИМАТЬ	understand	понимать хорошо по-русски
ПОНЯТНО	clear, OK	Всё понятно.
ПРЕДСТАВИТЬ	introduce	представить своего друга
ПРЕДСТАВИТЬСЯ	introduce oneself	Разрешите представиться.
ПРИЯТНО	nice, pleasant	Очень приятно с вами познакомиться.
РАБОТАТЬ	work	работать на заводе, в школе
РУССКИЙ	Russian	Она русская; русский язык
СОВЕТСКИЙ	Soviet	ехать в Советский Союз
СПЕЦИАЛЬНОСТЬ	profession, specialty	Кто вы по специальности?
СТАЖИРОВКА	study trip	ехать на стажировку
СТРАНА	country	Вы из какой страны?
УНИВЕРСИТЕТ	university	учиться в университете
УЧИТЬСЯ	study	Где вы учитесь?
ФАМИЛИЯ	surname	Как ваша фамилия?
ФИНН, ФИНКА	Finn	Он финн. Она финка. Мы финны.
ФИНЛЯНДИЯ	Finland	Я из Финляндии.
ФИНСКИЙ	Finnish	изучать финский язык
ХОРОШО	well	говорить хорошо по-русски
ЧИТАТЬ	read	читать литературу на русском языке
ШКОЛА	school	работать в школе
ЯЗЫК	language	иностранный язык, русский язык

АНГЛИЧАНИН ПАВЕЛ

Мы ели арбуз, когда дверь открылась и в комнату вошел Павел. Мы все очень обрадовались, потому что он давно уже не был у нас и мы по нему соскучились.

- О, кто к нам пришел! - сказал папа. - Сам Павел.

- Садись с нами, Павел арбуз есть, - сказала мама.

Я сказал: - Привет!

Он сказал: - Привет! - и сел.

И мы начали есть, и долго ели и молчали, потому что арбуз был очень вкусный.

- Почему ты, Павел так давно не был у нас? - спросил папа.

- Да, - сказал я. - Где ты был? Что ты делал?

- Что делал ... Английский изучал, вот что делал, - небрежно сказал Павел.

- Вот, Дениска, бери пример, - сказала мама. - Это тебе не футбол.

- Молодец! - сказал папа. - Уважаю! А как же ты занимался?

- К нам в гости приехал студент Сева. Так вот он со мной каждый день занимается. Вот уже два месяца.

- А что, трудный английский язык? - спросил я.

- Очень, - вздохнул Павел. - Я очень устал от этих занятий.

Похудел на двести граммов.

- Так почему же ты, когда вошел, не сказал нам по-английски "здравствуйте"? - спросила мама.

- Я "здавствуйте" ещё не изучал, - сказал Павел.

- А вот ты арбуз ел, почему не сказал "спасибо"?

- Я сказал.

- Ну да, по-русски ты сказал, а по-английски?

- И "спасибо" я ещё не знаю.

Тогда я сказал: - Павлик, а ты научи меня, как по-английски "раз", "два", "три".

- Я этого ещё не изучал, - сказал Павел.

- Так что же ты изучал! - закричал я. - Ты ведь занимался два месяца!

- Я изучал, как по-английски "Петя". - сказал Павел.

- Ну, как? ---

- "Пит"! - торжественно произнес Павел. - По-английски "Петя" будет "Пит". Он радостно засмеялся и добавил: - Вот приду в класс и скажу Петьке Горбушину: "Пит, дай ластик!" Он, наверное, нечего не поймет. Вот смешно-то будет. Верно, Денис?
- Верно, - сказал я. - Ну, а что ты ещё знаешь по-английски?
- Это всё, что я пока знаю, - сказал Павел.

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INTENSIVE COURSE IN RUSSIAN
for students of Social Sciences and the Humanities

ACTIVATION OF THE LEARNING MATERIAL

In the Teacher's Guide a large number of various activation exercises have been provided, on the basis of which the teacher can work out her own lesson plans. The activation exercises are divided into two parts: the objective of the first phase is to provide practice in the use of certain individual speech acts, structures, and expressions (Activation 1), while in the second phase the exercises are more extensive and aim at providing communication practice (Activation 2). Four lessons are given to the first phase, and two to the second.

First activation phase:

The lesson may start with some music, for instance by listening to the song "*My address is the Soviet land*" (included on the students' cassettes). The teacher can then recite the scripted dialogue or parts of it (which may also be read aloud in unison), to help recall the situations and events. The first exercises cover introductions and the use of names, the objective being to teach Russian names and forms of address.

1. *Russian and Finnish names*

A model table of Russian names has been provided in the Teacher's Guide (first names, diminutive forms, patronymics, and surnames). This table is used as a basis for a discussion on names. The teacher can ask what Russian names the students know, or start a discussion on which names are commonest among Finns and Russians.

2. *Who knows the largest number of Russian names?*

A competition on names: who can list the largest number of Russian names? (First names and surnames can be dealt with separately.) The winner receives a prize. (Prizes are more or less symbolic: a card, a calendar, or something else appropriate to the topic.)

3. *What is the name of the person sitting next to you?*

Activation can be done as a chain exercise, with the teacher starting by introducing the person sitting next to her: "My friend's name is ...", and continuing by asking the person on her other side: "What is the name of your friend?" (With Russian names both the first name and the patronymic are mentioned; the same exercise can be done with surnames.)

4. *Let's get acquainted!*

The previous activation is expanded by including the expressions used for introductions. Next, everybody introduces themselves in turn: "Let me introduce myself. My name is..., and my surname is.... And what is your name?" Role names are used in this activation exercise.

5. *Introductions*

The same expressions can be practised in pairs or groups of three. All groups work simultaneously.

6. *Getting introduced to more people*

One member of each pair or small group introduces his friends to the rest of the class.

7. *Are you ...?*

The aim is to practise the expressions: "Are you ...? - Yes, I am. - No, I am not, my name is ...". This can be done in the form of a ball game. The teacher throws the ball to one or other of the students and asks the question at the same time. The student who catches the ball answers the question and continues the game by throwing the ball to somebody else and directing the question at him/her. The game is continued until the expressions are produced fluently.

8. *Pleased to meet you*

One more situation involving introductions. Here, replies to introductions receive the main emphasis. The task is first realised as pair work, after which each pair introduce their partner to the teacher: "May I introduce my friend/colleague. His/Her name is ...". The teacher can use various expressions in her replies, e.g. "Pleased to meet you. / I'm very happy to make your acquaintance. / Haven't we met?"

The next activations concern situations in which one talks about oneself (native country, town, nationality). At the same time, questions (where, where to, where from) and prepositions are practised. A table of these structures may be hung on the wall or otherwise displayed.

9. *Names of countries and nationalities*

A quiz game is arranged: Who knows the largest number of names of countries and nationalities in Russian? If the students do not possess much knowledge of this, a table presenting the Russian names of countries and the corresponding words for nationality and language can be used as an aid (supplied in the Teacher's Guide).

10. *Are you Finnish/Russian?*

The teacher asks the students questions, to which they reply in the negative or in the positive, according to role. Numerals can be reviewed in connection with this task by counting how many Finns and Russians there are in the group. (Other nationalities can also be included.)

11. *Soviet towns*

The teacher can first find out how well the students know the names of Soviet towns, for example, by asking everybody in turn to list the towns they know without repeating a town mentioned earlier. If not many towns are known, a map of the Soviet Union can be used as an aid and the towns spotted on the map. The exercise can also be done as a two-team competition.

12. *Where do you come from?*

The expressions "What country/town do you come from? - Moscow/Helsinki. And you?" can be practised in the form of a ball game. The teacher starts the game by throwing the ball to one of the students and asking the question. It can be agreed in advance that only names of Russian towns are to be used and that, once used, a name cannot be repeated. The same game can be played using names of countries.

13. *Where do you live?*

This exercise can be done in the same way as the previous one or as a series of questions going round in a chain: "Where do you live? - In the Soviet Union/Finland/Moscow/Helsinki, etc. And you? - I live in"

14. *You live in ...*

The previous activation exercise can be continued in groups of three or four by first finding out where each group member lives and then one group member telling the other groups where members of his/her own group live. (In addition to 1st person singular and 2nd person plural, the 3rd person singular is also practised.) The persons' names and nationalities can also be mentioned in the introduction.

At the end of the double lesson, a song can be played or sung, for example "*My address is the Soviet land*" (the lyrics of which are included in the Teacher's Guide). On an intensive course there is usually a break after each double lesson.

The following activation exercises concern work and one's profession and the structures and expressions required to talk about these matters.

15. *Professions*

The teacher can first show the students pictures depicting various professions, jobs, and working tasks, asking them to identify the profession/job (e.g. teacher, physician, lorry driver). The teacher can also use the table provided in the Teacher's Guide showing several professions and jobs.

16. *Guess who they are*

Professions/jobs can be mimed. The group is divided into two or three teams and each team mimes a profession/job they have agreed on while the others try to guess what or who they are miming.

17. *What is your profession?*

The expressions "What is your profession? - I'm a teacher/interpreter. And you?" can be practised as a chain exercise. The students may use either the professions assigned to their roles or ones of their own choice. After this, one group member can be asked to summarise how many persons in the group have what profession.

18. *Are you studying or working?*

In this exercise the following expressions are practised: "Are you studying or working? Where do you study/work?" The teacher can first show pictures and ask questions about them. Then the class is divided into groups of three, the students ask each other similar questions and then one member of each group introduces the rest of his/her group to the class. The students can also ask the teacher where her/his relatives (children, husband/wife, parents) work or study.

The following exercises practise the expressions required for talking about foreign language skills.

19. *Foreign languages*

First, the teacher finds out to what extent the students are familiar with the words for foreign languages in Russian. She can, for example, mention the name of a country and the students have to say what language is spoken there. The teacher can also use the table "Country-nationality-language" in the Teacher's Guide as an aid.

20. *Do you speak Russian?*

The class is divided into three groups. In each group there is one person representing a Russian and two representing Finnish students. Of the Finns, one speaks some Russian, the other none. The "Russian" asks the "Finns" whether they speak Russian. All groups work simultaneously. The structure required is displayed on the wall or blackboard (and is included in the Teacher's Guide).

21. *How well you speak Russian!*

The following structures are practised: "You speak Russian well. Where have you studied Russian? For how long?" The exercise can be done as pair work with one "Finn" and one "Russian" forming a pair.

In the next activation exercises the expression "Where are you travelling?" is practised. (The table "Where-where to-where from" may be displayed.)

22. *"Telephone out-of-order"*

One of the students asks the teacher "Where are you going?" The teacher whispers an answer and the person sitting next to the student asks him/her where the teacher is travelling to. He/She also gets a whispered reply. The next student in line asks the same question and gets a whispered reply until the last student gives the reply aloud. If the place name is a Russian town unfamiliar to the students, the reply may well have been garbled "on the way".

23. *The train*

The chairs are placed opposite each other as in a train. The class is divided into two or three (groups of 4-5). In each group one member plays the role of carriage attendant (as in a Russian train) and the rest are passengers. The carriage attendant hands out customs declara-

tion forms to be filled in and at the same time talks to the passengers (asking them where they are going, what nationality they are, where they are coming from, etc.). The customs form is included in the Teacher's Guide.

The last task on the first activation day is intended to review what has been learnt by combining individual structures and expressions to form a larger whole.

24. *Information about seminar participants*

This task can be done together as a group. The students are seminar participants, of whom a list is compiled. For this the following data are required:

- How many participants.
 - Their names.
 - Their nationalities.
 - Where they live (country/town), or where they originally come from.
 - How many persons from each country/town.
 - Professional status of participants.
 - How many represent what profession. How many are students.
 - What languages they speak and how well.
 - Where the participants are going after the seminar.
- etc.

The information is set out in writing. If writing is difficult, the teacher can provide the questions on separate pieces of paper and the answers given to these are arranged in logical order and written down.

The first activation day may end with a piece of music (with the students singing or dancing). Student requests for music should be complied with. The Teacher's Guide provides the lyrics for 33 songs, all of which are also recorded on the students' audio cassettes.

The second activation phase

At the beginning of the second activation phase short review exercises on previously learnt structures and expressions are presented in order to aid recollection and memorisation.

1. *Getting acquainted*

The teacher may start the lesson by asking individual students questions using the structures and expressions learnt the previous day: "Do you speak Russian? ... Let's get to know each other. My name is ..., my surname is And what is your name? etc." The students reply in accordance with their roles. (At the beginning the "visiting card" should be kept visible so that the students learn to remember each others' role names.)

2. *Konstantin Sergeyevich, Kostya ...*

The use of Russian names can be reviewed with the aid of a ball game. The one who catches the ball quickly gives his/her role name and throws the ball to the next person.

Longer forms (first name and patronymic) as well as short forms (familiar form) are practised. If somebody fails to remember his/her role name, he/she can be given the extra task of listing the role names of everybody in the group.

3. *Do you know the map of the world?*
After a couple of minutes of preparation time, everybody lists as many names of countries in Russian as they can remember. The winner gets a symbolic prize, for example, the privilege of choosing the next piece of music to be played.
4. *Eva is Finnish, she has come here from Helsinki*
This exercise can be done using a map. One of the students introduces the other class members, explains where they have come from and what their nationality is. (Other than assigned roles can be used.)
5. *We share a room at the hotel*
The students are divided into groups of two or three. They are all staying at the same hotel. The task involves getting to know one's room mate using expressions previously practised.
6. *The report*
Each student prepares a report for a radio broadcast on a seminar on Russian (or any other suitable event), giving the most essential information about it: where it is being held, who the participants are, from what countries they come, etc. This is an individual task and some time for preparation must be given. The information is presented by each student in turn, with the rest of the class listening.
7. *Is it true?*
The teacher asks a student questions about the person sitting next to him/her, for example, about profession, nationality, etc. When the student has answered, the teacher checks with the rest of the class whether the information is correct (true to the role). The exercise provides opportunities for repeating structures several times if it seems that the students do not yet have adequate command of these.

The following activation exercises consist of micro-situations, études, which aim to give the students a freer hand in structuring dialogues and in which they can use all that they have previously learnt, combining it in whatever way they choose.

8. *Making somebody's acquaintance on a train*
Task: "You are travelling on a train. You get to know somebody travelling in the same compartment. You want to know as much about him/her as possible." The exercise is done in pairs, with all the pairs working simultaneously. After that, some or all pairs act out their dialogue in front of the class.

9. *Whom did you get to know?*
Task: "When you get back from your journey, you tell a friend of yours whom you travelled with, whom you got to know, what kind of a person he/she was, etc." This is again done in pairs. The students should be made to change partners every once in a while to avoid always having the same people interacting.
10. *Meeting somebody at the station*
Task: "You meet a former colleague/acquaintance at the station/airport. Ask him/her if it really is him/her, introduce yourself, tell him/her where you live, where you are going, etc." This exercise can be done in pairs or groups of three, in which case the third person is introduced by one of the other players.
11. *Meeting a delegation*
Task: "You are meeting a foreign delegation at the station/airport. Introduce yourself to each member of the delegation, find out from what town they are, what their professions are, etc." The students are divided into one group of two to three, who play the welcoming committee, the rest being members of the delegation.
12. *Colleagues*
Task: "At a congress you meet a Russian colleague and another colleague from some other country. They do not know each other, so you must introduce them." The exercise is done in groups of three.
13. *Meeting somebody at the university*
Task: "You run into somebody on the campus who somehow seems familiar. Find out who he/she is, whether you have met before, when and where, what he/she is doing here, where he/she lives, works, or studies, etc." A pair exercise.
14. *Registering at a congress*
Task: "You are in Moscow to attend a congress. Please fill in the registration form." The exercise can be done individually in writing (an authentic form is included in the Teacher's Guide), or as a role play in which one student (or the teacher) is the congress official who distributes the forms and gives advice on how to fill them in and also checks that the forms are all correctly filled in.
15. *Registering at the hotel*
Task: "You are on a trip to Moscow and you are getting installed in the hotel. At the hotel reception you have to fill in the registration form." (The form is included in the Teacher's Guide.) The exercise is done in the same way as the previous one.

The activation phase of the first theme ends with the first double lesson on the third day of the course. If one wishes to include learning a song in connection with each theme, this song can be repeated at the end of the lesson.

Samples of various forms of activation exercises have been video-recorded in connection with a try-out of the intensive course material (Laihiala-Kankainen & Koponen 1984).

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